DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 223 976 CS 006 890

AUTHOR	Tice, Joan, Ed.
TITLE	Reading in the 80's: Where Are We Going? Volume 5. Fifth Yearbook of the Arizona State University Reading Conference, 1982.
INSTITUTION	Arizona State Univ., Tempe. Coll. of Education.
PUB DATE	82
NOTE	95p.; A number of pages may be marginally legible. Conference also sponsored by Arizona State Department of Education, Division of Migrant Child Education. Proceedings published by the Graduate Students in Reading Education.
AVAILABLE FROM	Reading Education, Payne B-112, Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ 85287 ($2.00).
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021) -- Guides - Classroom Use - Guides (For Teachers) (052)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Academic Achievement; Adolescent Literature; Beginning Reading; Bilingualism; Curriculum Design; Elementary Secondary Education; Humor; *Learning Activities; *Oral Language; Play; *Reading Instruction; *Reading Research; Remedial Reading; Research Utilization; *Study Skills
IDENTIFIERS	California Achievement Tests

ABSTRACT

Contained in this yearbook are the proceedings of the fifth annual Arizona State University Reading Conference. This edition reflects an emphasis on a wide range of topics, including study skills, oral language, and teaching strategies. Following a foreword, the conference articles discuss the following: (1) study skills across the curriculum, (2) new frontiers of reading instruction, (3) imaginative play as a facilitator of prereading skills in bilingual early childhood settings, (4) remediation through oral language development, (5) humor in young adult literature, (6) oral and other forms of communication, (7) practical applications of reading research, (8) directed reading-thinking activities, and (9) results of the California Achievement Test given in Arizona. The yearbook concludes with a review of the contents of the four previous conference yearbooks. (HTH)

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READING IN THE 80'S: WHERE ARE WE GOING?

VOLUME 5

Fifth Yearbook of the Arizona State University
Reading Conference - 1982

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The 1981-82 yearbook of the Reading Conference Proceedings is dedicated to Dr. Dorothy Piercey Kozacik who has been both friend and colleague to the students, staff, and faculty in Reading Education at Arizona State University.

Dr. Kozacik's genuine enthusiasm has remained a "constant" in rapidly changing times. She has given often of herself to help us meet new personal and professional challenges, and provided an exemplary model upon which we can base our segue into the future.

Joan M. Tice
Managing Editor

FORWARD

The first volume of the Arizona State University Reading Conference Proceedings appeared five years ago under the sponsorship of the Graduate Students in Reading Education. In spite of the changing nature and tenure of graduate students, the proceedings have continued to appear each year and document the high quality of the annual conference. This year's conference covered a wide range of topics -- study skills, play, humor, oral language, research application, teaching strategies, and even some speculations about the future. As always, the presenters stimulated some new thinking and helped participants revise some older biases. For their efforts, we are indeed richer.

To the graduate students who assisted in both making the conference a success and in the preparation of this volume, the faculty in Reading Education offers sincere gratitude for their professionalism and take pride in the continuation of a fine tradition.

Lyndon W. Searfoss

CONTENTS

Page

STUDY SKILLS ACROSS THE CURRICULUM K-12
by William L. Christen, Debra J. Elliott, Lyndon W. Searfoss, and Joan M. Tice 1

THE NEW FRONTIERS OF READING INSTRUCTION "PROMISING OR PERILOUS?"
by Debra J. Elliott, Berta E. Parrish, and Loren Thompson. . 8

IMAGINATIVE PLAY AS A FACILITATOR OF PRE-READING SKILLS IN BILINGUAL EARLY CHILDHOOD SETTINGS
by Reynaldo Gomez 20

A STRUCTURE TO REMEDIATION THROUGH ORAL LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT
by Eleanor J. Maddox 30

AN EXPLORATION AND DEFENSE OF THE HUMOR IN YOUNG ADULT LITERATURE
by Alleen Pace Nilsen and Don L.F. Nilsen 42

COMMUNICATION - ORAL AND OTHERWISE (INFORMAL NOTES)
by Florence Odle 48

WHAT'S NEW? PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS OF READING RESEARCH
by Lyndon W. Searfoss with: Janet Bowerman Curran, Debra J. Elliott, Mary Ann Lawson, and Joan M. Tice 49

COMMON QUESTIONS ABOUT DIRECTED READING-THINKING ACTIVITIES
by William J. Valmont 57

ARIZONA CAT RESULTS - USES AND ABUSES
by Stanley R. Wurster 63

CONTENTS OF PREVIOUS EDITIONS - FIFTH YEAR REVIEW 86

STUDY SKILLS ACROSS THE CURRICULUM K-12

William L. Christen
Debra J. Elliott
Lyndon W. Searfoss
Joan M. Tice
Arizona State University

"What curriculum content should be taught to all high school students?" This age old question continues to be a challenge to educators. There is little evidence, however, of past recommendations that include the notion of teaching students how to study. Recently the College Board, which administers the SAT, brought together over 400 secondary and college-level educators to grapple with the problem of the declining SAT scores. As an outcome of this work, the educators issued a list of competencies all college bound students should possess prior to entering college. This list is comprised of six areas called "developed abilities" which include: reading, writing, speaking and listening, mathematics, reasoning, and studying. A seventh area labeled "observing," relates to learning derived from the arts and laboratory experiments, and is still under consideration.

While this study focuses on the college bound student, it is important to see the need for this type of training for all students in our secondary schools. What is more fundamental than to teach students study skills that transcend all content areas and which aid students in learning the body of knowledge society feels is important? As the College Board report stated (1981):

> Successful study skills are necessary for acquiring the other five competencies as well as for achieving the desired outcomes. Students are unlikely to be efficient in any part of their work without them.

Why then aren't we seriously talking about including them as a central core of any curriculum discussion? Looking at only content related issues must be avoided. It is time to look at those competencies listed in the College Board report and to begin implementing them into the schools as well as into the teacher training programs around the nation.

Why the concern about study skills training for secondary students at this time? Is it because the SAT scores are declining? Is it because many secondary teachers assume these skills have been taught in the lower grades and believe there is no need to teach these skills? Is it because most secondary teachers have not been trained in the area of reading/study skills and, there-

fore, feel inadequate concerning the incorporation of these skills in their classrooms? Is it because we are seeing more and more students failing in school? Is it because we are experiencing the fact that students coming to the university do not have the skills necessary to meet the demands of various programs of study they are pursuing? Perhaps it is to some degree all of these reasons, as well as many unstated ones. Nevertheless, it is apparent to most educators that we are facing a serious problem. It is evident that many of the secondary students in our schools across the nation are not being trained in such basic skills as notetaking, time management, test preparation, using a reading system such as PREP or SQ3R, learning how to set priorities and goals for learning, and many more.

In reviewing the literature and instructional materials concerning the teaching of study skills, several emerging themes developed:

-High school study skills programs usually are found in the English program with emphasis placed on outlining. Study skills instruction may also be included in a junior/senior level college preparation course. Application to content area material is rarely, if ever, made.

-Attempts are being made to teach individual study skills such as notetaking, finding the main idea, and summarizing at the elementary school level. But once again, application to content material is lacking.

-College study skills courses stress improvement in reading comprehension, speed, vocabulary growth, and general study practices through use of workbooks, rate acceleration programs, and audiotapes --rarely content related materials.

-Studies on advanced organizers (study guides, listening guides, etc.) have shown that prior to receiving new information in prose form, students who had some form of organizational practice using a higher cognitive level had a higher degree of comprehension of the material than those who didn't.

It seems evident that there is a need for effective study skills training at the secondary level. Many of our students who go on to higher education are being forced to develop the skills as a matter of survival. We are not necessarily saying the skills they are developing are poor. What we would like to put forth is that the students are having to refine these skills at a time when there is a great deal of pressure. Not only are they in a totally new environment, but they are also being forced to deal with an educational experience much different than what they have faced in

the past. Unfortunately, it appears that most students coming to the university may not be equipped with the competencies needed to be successful in their studies.

A study conducted at the University of Idaho by Jeanette Driskell and Edward Kelly (1980) concerned itself with incoming freshmen. This study was designed to find out whether grades for freshmen receiving six weeks of instruction in study skills were significantly different from similar freshmen who did not receive instruction.

> As a basis for selecting subjects, regression equations were calculated between SAT scores and the grade point averages earned by freshmen in the first semester of the previous academic year. The data obtained were used to identify new freshmen whose SAT scores predicted an inability to earn a 2.00 or "C" grade point average.

Driskell and Kelly developed and taught a sequence of twelve 50 minute lessons to a treatment group of students who satisfied the above criteria. The instruction the students received utilized higher cognitive level organizational and summarizing tasks using textbook material and sample tests which were drawn from tests the students had already taken.

The results of this study showed that the treatment group of freshmen students predicted to fail had a significantly higher GPA than the control group at the end of the first semester. The mean GPA for the treatment group was 2.55 compared to a mean GPA of 1.70 for the control group.

An additional study done by Elliott and Tice (1981) at Arizona State University centered on identifying students' perceptions of their study habits and skills, as well as whether or not they received study skill training prior to entering the University. A forty-seven item survey instrument was given to English 101 classes. After the instrument was administered, several findings were reported:

- -a significant number of students did not perceive themselves as having had any prior study skills instruction.
- -students were not using an organized notetaking system and summarizing lecture notes or textbook readings.
- -students, for the most part, did not use notes taken in class in any structured way, such as for frequent review or summarizing.
- -students indicated they were not comfortable using their instructors as a resource (for individual help

or to answer questions).

-students do not study with test questions in mind.

If this information is reflective of incoming freshmen students, it is apparent that these students feel a need for training in study skills development.

Why, then, the need for study skills instruction? Primarily because for students to survive in the world they must learn to provide the self-direction and self-motivation necessary to complete independent activities. They must learn how to sort out information being received, separate ideas from each other, and retain those ideas that are needed to complete assignments or tasks. They must be able to reconstruct ideas as well as bring together materials from several sources of information in order to complete a task. They must learn how to set goals as well as learn efficient ways to meet their goals. They must work to become efficient, flexible readers who are constantly expanding their vocabularies, learn how to comprehend more difficult reading material over time, and learn how to become critical thinkers. In order to achieve these ends, students must be exposed to study activities that will give them the strategies to enhance learning. These are the activities we call study skills.

What study skills should be taught and when? Ideally, study skills training should begin in the fifth grade and continue to be reinforced throughout junior high and high school. A specific course in study skills should be taught in the seventh grade and repeated in the tenth grade. If this is not possible, it could be incorporated in a language arts course. In addition, the entire faculty should be trained in the study skills being taught to the students. Unless the skill training is carried over into the content areas, there is little chance it will be implemented by the student. The link between learning various study skills, like notetaking and reading comprehension, and applying these skills to the various content areas needs to be facilitated by the classroom teacher. If teaching content is important, is it not equally important to help students learn how to learn the content being studied? To assume students have these skills, abilities, and motivations is to assume more than we should. The following are nine skill building themes around which specific study skills could be address:

1. Locating information: learning how to use tables of content, indexes, reader's guides, thessauri, dictionaries, encyclopedias, almanacs, libraries, catalogues, and other information resources.

2. Selecting information: determining what information is important to learn by recognizing its significance as a main idea and/or supporting detail.

3. Organizing and remembering information: learning how to develop a vocabulary system, summarizing information, notetaking, understanding organizational patterns, and sharpening listening skills.

4. Understanding how to interpret graphic aids: learning how to use charts, diagrams, tables, maps, graphs, cartoons, and pictures to gain a better understanding of the message being presented by the writer.

5. Following simple and complex written and oral directions: learning how to become an independent learner by following and understanding class assignments, completing class projects, participating in class activities, understanding written directions found in textbooks, journals, assignment sheets, and other written information.

6. Developing reading flexibility: learning how to read with a purpose in mind and, as a result, using the appropriate reading technique including: slow, careful reading, rapid reading, skimming and scanning, and by using a reading/study system for study materials like PREP or SQ3R.

7. Retrieving information: explaining the concept of short-term memory vs. long-term memory and how learning takes place, the importance of concentration, the use of memory aids, how to prepare for and study for exams, and how to apply concepts learned to real life experiences.

8. Using time wisely: understanding thoroughly the basic concepts of time management and how to analyze task vs. time.

9. Using effective writing skills: learning how to use writing as a basic means of communication, how to use pre-writing skills, how to find and use information in themes, term papers, and class projects, and how to use the varied resources of a library.

By systematically attending to teaching these basic study skills to teachers and students alike, we are giving the students a set of learning tools that will prove useful in their school pursuits, as well as in their career choices. In order to accomplish this task, however, school boards, administrators, and teachers must agree that these skills are essential to a student's experience in school. Once agreed upon, a program of training teachers and eventually students can begin. The training can take place in

workshops on the teaching of study skills or in college courses designed to train teachers how to teach study skills. Both of these programs are being implemented in the College of Education at Arizona State University. Through Reading Education, an undergraduate and graduate course is being offered, as well as non-credit workshops for teachers. A typical workshop would include work in: reading comprehension, reading rate, vocabulary development, skimming and scanning, motivation, notetaking, concentration, time management, PREP study system, mapping, finding the main ideas and supporting details, test preparation, and writing. It is the intent of this program to give teachers a set of skills they can use with their students regardless of the content they teach. As the College Board report indicated (1981): "You need competencies with which to learn subject matter and you need subject matter on which to develop your competencies." We hope that educators will carefully consider the implementation of this type of program as they review the needs of secondary students for the coming decade.

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THE NEW FRONTIERS OF READING INSTRUCTION: PROMISING OR PERILOUS?

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The conference theme of "Where are We Going in the 1980's?" is a timely and important question. This paper presents a few of the instructional practices that are being explored on the frontiers of reading instruction. These are methods which could revolutionarize reading instruction in the latter half of the 1980's

We are going toward computer literacy, micro-chip libraries and artifical intelligence. Our technology promises to change our world. As educators, we have to accept the responsibility to prepare the children and young adults of our country to cope with and master the age of information. We must teach our students how to use the technology of the 80's and not be used by it! Technology is very alluring. It promises us increased leisure time, creativity, greater production and personal fulfillment. It offers us personal and societal freedom. But if we turn the coin, we fear the perils of this same technology. Automation has already created a depersonalized, dehumanized society of social security numbers and ugly tellers. Unemployment has already created an alienated, angry minority and youth culture. The epitome of technology, the robot, reminds us of the nightmares of science fiction.

On the other hand, transpersonal practices from humanistic psychology are influencing the future curriculum of schools. Marilyn Ferguson (1980) in The Acquarian Conspirancy states:

> In contrast to conventional education, which aims to adjust the individual to society as it exists, the "humanistic" educators of the 1960's maintained that the society should accept its members as unique and autonomous. Transpersonal experience aims for a new kind of learner and a new kind of society. Beyond self-acceptance, it promotes self-transcendence... It is education's counterpart to holistic medicine: education of the whole person.

The transpersonal curriculum also promises greater personal and societal freedom, but through personality integration, the attainment of inner peace, and the accomplishment of self-actualization. However, there are perils here too. We fear the isolation and withdrawl of the desired "detachment" and inner-directness of

the personal search necessary for transformation. We fear the possible self-obsession and aesthetism.

We are indeed in a transition between the Industrial Age and the Information Era. Which way do we go? Let's first look at where we have been and where we are now - then explore some possibilities of the future.

The chart below indicates the transpersonal and technological instructional practices of the present and the immediate future of the 1980's.

	Transpersonal	Technological
1960 - 1970's	Language Experience Journals Socio - dramas	Television Controlled Readers Language Masters
1980's	Guided Imagery Biofeedback Suggestopedia Hypnosis	Computer Assisted Instruction Micro-chip libraries Video-discs Memory drugs/scents

It is imperative that we, as educators begin looking at ways to harness this momentum, taking advantage of the transpersonal methodologies as well as the technological. By doing so we can offer our students more alternatives in their individual development, while keeping them "tuned into" the advances in technology. It is our desire to present elements of each of these emergent approaches.

TRANSPERSONAL TECHNIQUES

Relaxation

The key that will unlock much of transpersonal methodology is relaxation. Relaxation is considered a process that enables us to bridge the right, intuitive, creative brain with the linear, analytic left brain.

Relaxation techniques and exercises have been long employed in the area of creative arts. Relaxation exercises are used as a way of relieving anxiety and tension, as well as a means to clear the mind in preparation for performing. We'd like to suggest "progressive muscle relaxation" for classroom use. It is a form of self-generated exercises also known as "autogenics" (Frey 1980). The

various muscle groups of the body are identified, such as the muscles of the foot, the lower leg muscles, and so on. The muscles of each group are tensed, while keeping all other muscles relaxed, for a slow count of five, then tension is released. The subject progresses through all the muscle groups in this manner, working from the foot, to the muscles in the face. The final step would be to tense the entire body, ending in total relaxation. At this time, the subject has an awareness of the difference between tenseness and relaxation. The concentration involved in the exercise leaves the mind free from distraction and in a relaxed, clear state, allowing the subject to begin mental preparation for study, test taking, or visualization.

Biofeedback

Another form of relaxation and stress reduction, which has received a great deal of attention since the sixties, is biofeedback. Biofeedback machines provide visual readouts or tones that allow the user to minitor bodily processes such as body and skin temperature, heartbeat, muscle activity, and brainwaves. Research has shown that we are able to control these processes that once were considered totally involuntary internal phenomenon. The success of biofeedback is directly related to the subject's ability to achieve a relaxed, alert state. The machine aids the subject in reaching this state because it provides a focus for concentration and gives the user instant feedback indicating the level reached. Biofeedback is currently being used in the treatment of such stress related diseases as high blood pressure, ulcers, tension headaches, cardiac arrythmia and stroke paralysis. Rather than focusing on the symptoms and their relief, the patient zeroes in on the stress that is causing the problem.

How can biofeedback be utilized in the schools? An alternative education program in Alief, Texas incorporates relaxation training as an integral part of their program (Prall, 1980). They believe that by achieving and experiencing relaxation, their students function far better in the class. Hence, relaxation training, much like the progressive exercises described earlier, is a scheduled part of the day. Biofeedback training is used with those students who find it difficult to participate in other forms of relaxation training. Use of the machines has helped students believe in their ability to control their own body function. It has also contributed to an increased feeling of self-control and self-worth (and in some cases, even an interest in science fiction!).

Guided Imagery

One transpersonal methodology that can be utilized upon reaching a state of relaxation is visualization. Visualization is not something completely foreign to us. It is a rare person who has not been daydreaming or mentally in another place, re-living another conversation or imagining an interaction about to take

place. Unfortunately, this type of activity is stifled or considered out of place in the classroom. Rather than take that attitude, transformationalists view visualization as something which can be consciously and effectively harnessed to enrich our lives. Visualization can be a very beneficial addition to the classroom (Denning and Phillips, 1980). Combined with positive suggestions, teachers can encourage students to visualize, and even experience their senses, colors, objects, abstract concepts, feelings, and relationships. Mental dialogues can be incorporated. Mental movies are already being used in the area of athletics. The sprinter mentally "runs" the race straight through to the tape, with arms raised in victory. The football player experiences the motions of making a pass, while sitting in the locker room before the game. By positively experiencing the situation before it occurs, the anxiety and stress levels are lowered (Ostrander & Shroeder, 1979).

This kind of activity can successfully be used in the classroom. The following are excerpts of a guided fantasy that might be experienced by a biology class studying plant life. It is suggested the students initially be carried through the progressive muscle relaxation exercises. The scene should be mentally "set" for the students by giving them some lead into the experience:

A Guided Fantasy
"The Bee Orchid"
(Elliott and Baker, 1981)

"Take a deep breath, and as you let it out, allow your body to ease into a relaxed position. Your relaxed state is one free of distractions. Take another deep breath, and as you do, focus your attention on the visual before you (show visual of orchid). Drink in its beauty. As you release your breath, free your mind of all other thoughts. Allow the warm colors of the orchid--the violet, the deep purple, to spread throughout your body. It is a delicate plant. Allow your mind to experience its simplicity. Hold it with your mind's eye. You can give it dimension, and give it texture. You can give it fragrance. You can give this image life. This is the power of relaxation. As you breathe, breathe in the plant's beauty, make that beauty a part of yourself. Breathing out, release any lingering tension. Your eyelids will begin to feel heavy. Allow those muscles to relax as well, letting your lids close, your head roll to a comfortable place. Experience the darkness and the inner peace it brings you. There are no more sounds or feelings of tension - just total relaxation and a feeling of warmth. Allow that warmth to flow through you now - the warmth of violet and deep purple. Allow your mind to see the colors. Now allow those colors to take shape. Your mind will recreate the orchid. You can trace its

outline with your mind's eye. The image is there for you to touch and experience with your senses.

You are going away now, away to that special place - that place that gives you joy and a feeling of freedom. Where is your special place? Perhaps it is by the edge of a vivid blue lake where the water laps gently at your feet. Is it on the slope of a mountain where you are surrounded by freshly fallen snow and a gentle breeze? It is in the desert surrounded by towering sahuaros? A field, carpeted in lush green? Or is your special place on a sandy beach listening to the roar and power behind walls of water that come crashing toward you? Wherever your special place is is where you are, and in your hand you hold a delicate orchid which is yours to discover and become intimate with. You will know it well. You will be able to name its parts and become familiar with such vocables as trichomes, sepal, labellum, stigma, caudicle, bursicle, ovules, ovulary, spur, pollunium, and viscidia. This is the language of flowers. It is the language of beauty. Let us explore this beauty together.

Envision yourself growing smaller, smaller. Small enough to come eye to eye with the tiny, scurrying inhabitants of the world beneath your feet. You crawl up onto a small round leaf...it is wet, you must be careful not to slip on the slick epidermis. You crawl on all fours. Standing up, you place your hands against the fleshy flower stem, which is devoid of any other leaves. As you gaze up, it looks like a tapering telephone pole which extends above you several stories. Its glossy surface is bare, except for well-spaced hairs, or trichomes, which protrude from the stem at right angles. You step up onto one of the small hairs and it snaps from your weight. A drop of dew exudes from the broken portion. You try a larger hair and find it can support your weight, so you begin ascending up the stem towards the violet flower. As you ascend toward the top, you find yourself swaying back and forth in the breeze. You have to wrap your legs around the stem tightly so you won't fall into the sharp pine needles below. As you reach the base of the flower itself, there is a single leaf-like structure, the flower bract. The stem above the bract appears to thicken and curve. This thickening is part of the flower's reproduction system, the ovulary you curiously pinch through the epidermis and the ovulary wall to explore the swollen cavity. You reach in and grab one of the small, moist spheres attached by thin strands. The strand snaps, wetting

your face and nearly causing you to fall. These tiny spheres are the ovules, or immature seeds, which will be fertilized and released when the plant has matured."

(It should be noted that the participants are guided into the fantasy. The listener is gradually brought to the point where his imagination can take over. The process is reversed at the end, and the listener slowly brought back to the world of concrete and activity).

"You have reached the end of your journey. As your feet touch the ground, that sense of inner peace wells up inside of you, making you feel you are growing - mentally as well as physically. You feel strong, you feel relaxed and you feel full of new knowledge being offered you. Rest for a moment in your special places, holding in your hands that lovely, lovely orchid, caressing it with your mind's eye as you slowly allow yourself to become aware of the presence of others around you. Feel the sights and sounds of your existence, all the while maintaining that sense of relaxation. When you are ready, open your eyes. You have returned to today."

The authors of this fantasy want the listener to "experience" a flower mentally before they actually begin their physical study of its parts and the fertilization process. The technical vocabulary is dispersed throughout in a natural manner and it will be referred to later, with references made to the fantasy. This type of "trip" could be used several different ways in a unit. It could serve as an introduction or motivation for the unit, as a means to direct students to important concepts, to familiarize students with vocabulary. It could also serve as a follow-up or lesson review. Students might even write their own, which would encourage individual research, as well as writing.

Hypnosis (Suggestion)

The role of hypnosis or suggestion in learning is being seriously explored and researched by educators. In the past, hypnosis was considered either a fraudulent gimmick of stage performers or a doubtful tool of psychotherapists. Prichard and Taylor (1980) believe that with suggestion a teacher may exert maximum impact upon student attitudes towards classroom activities (motivation) and upon beliefs about their own ability to learn (expectancy). Researchers believe that by the use of positive and carefully planned suggestions, a person can tap into part of the unused part of the brain.

T.X. Barber (1978) developed a formula which explains how hypnosis, which is actually just focused concentration, works to

bring a desired result:

Attitude/Expectation/Desire + Concentrated Attention = RESULTS
Suggestion + Imagination

By changing the type of suggestion, the results are thus changed. All of the other factors remain the same, and must be included for hypnosis to work. This is why all hypnosis is essentially self-hypnosis. You must like the results (attitude), you must believe it is going to work (expectation), and you must want it to work (desire).

These three internal factors plus the positive suggestion or affirmation are imaged or visualized while in a relaxed, receptive state of mind. Various induction techniques are used to focus attention and concentration to slow down the brain waves from the normally active and alert Beta range (15 to 30 electrical pulses per second). Some researchers believe the Alpha state of brain-wave activity is necessary, others do not.

Hypnosis has been used in the remediation process with severe problem readers. To date only psychologists and trained hypnotists have directly applied this promising practice to reading problems. However, many of the transpersonal techniques include the use of positive suggestion to foster positive self-concept and expectations.

Suggestopedia (Superlearning)

Superlearning is the popularized name for suggestopedia. It is purported to be an unusually effective instructional method based on applying elements of suggestion theory to classroom learning, (Ostrander & Schroeder, 1979). It was developed in Bulgaria by George Lozano. The method has received a lot of publicity and now Lozano Institutes are available in most major cities. It was originally utilized in Foreign Language instruction, but has also been used in mathematics and spelling instruction, (Schuster and Vincent, 1980).

Dr. Allyn Prichard and Jean Taylor (1980) adapted the suggestopedia method to remedial reading. Before a class can benefit from this format, approximately two weeks is spent in relaxation and visualization training. In the book Accelerating Learning: The Use of Suggestion in the Classroom, they list the following components of a typical reading lesson:

1. A reading game is played to create a positive learning attitude. Commercially produced phonic games are usually used.

2. The new vocabulary is presented through contextual and kinesthetic methods.

3. The words are reinforced by a passive review with music. This includes:

   a. a five minute relaxation and guided fantasy,
   b. suggestions emphasizing worthiness, health and success,
   c. teacher read vocabulary material while playing Baroque (4/4 time) music. The intonations are rotated by using a normal tone, then whispering, and then in a loud voice.

4. A play based on the reading material is dramatized by the students.

5. The students read the words orally.

6. Story material is presented by the teacher while students are in a relaxed state. Delivery must be dramatic and emotional.

7. A comprehension check is taken at the end of each instructional cycle.

TECHNOLOGICAL TECHNIQUES

Technology and reading have long been natural partners. Since Gutenberg's invention of the movable-type printing press, they have become inseparable. Without the aid of technology, there would be no widespread literacy. Today, we are in the midst of another major advancement in this partnership. The technology involved is electronics. Recent developments such as the microcomputer, the videodisc and electronic data-base libraries are rapidly becoming a part of our everyday world, and the field of reading is no exception.

Television

Although widely perceived merely as a device for home entertainment, television is regularly used in thousands of classrooms to aid in reading instruction, and vast quantities of material are available to any interested educator. Commercial and public service networks alike publish program and study guides for the use of teachers, students and parents on a wide variety of subjects.

Programs such as Shogun, All Quiet on the Western Front, and The Lion, The Witch, and The Wardrobe, each based upon a novel, have been widely distributed in either script form for classroom reading, or as carefully constructed study guides which open the eyes of the viewer to the richness and complexity of the production

and its themes. Network specials or series such as Skyward, The Boy Who Drank Too Much, or Up and Coming may depict social ills such as prejudice (race, age, sex, physical handicaps), or adolescent coping problems (drugs, alcohol, sex, relationships).

Additionally, many commercial firms produce scripts designed for oral reading, or materials designed to explicate television programming, evaluate propoganda in advertising, or evolve awareness of the potential adverse effects of television: violence, stereotyping, or sex.

So often in reading education we stress the invaluable role of "prior experience" in the comprehension process and the desirability of motivation. Television, that electronic window into the world, can provide both if properly employed.

Microcomputers

Microcomputers form another component of the electronic revolution that is deepening the interdependency of reading and technology. In 1978, 26,700 microcomputers were purchased by schools and conservative estimates project a quintrupling of that figure, or 130,000 purchases in 1983. Today, 50% of all high schools and 14% of elementary schools have a least one microcomputer devoted exclusively to classroom instruction (Bitter, 1981). What's made this possible? The recent invention of silicon chips which, no larger than a small corn flake, form the central core and portions of the memory system of microcomputers.

Reading education currently utilizes two major types of computer-based activities: CMI (Computer Managed Instruction) and CAI (Computer Assisted Instruction).

CMI acts to:
1. support classroom clerical functions such as storage, retrieval, and processing of student data,
2. diagnose/prescribe, and
3. provide and direct CAI, based on the foregoing instruction.

CAI, where the student and computer actually interact, is subdivided into:
1. "drill-and-practice" exercises where simple skills are reinforced, and
2. "tutorial" instruction where the learner is exposed to more concepts, and the computer actually assumes a teacher role.

Videodisc

More in the emergent stages than in widespread use, videodisc technology represents a third area of the electronics revolution

closely tied to print and reading. Used primarily as a home entertainment device like television, it nevertheless offers itself as a data storage and instructional device of tremendous flexibility. The type of videodisc most useful to education is an optical laser scan system able to individually locate any single frame or series of frames in a matter of seconds (one frame equivalent to one still picture or one printed page). With 108,000 to 160,000 frames per disc, this ability to instantaneously retrieve any picture or page of information is no mean accomplishment. The Encyclopedia Britannica would consume only three-fourths of one disc.

Coupled with the microcomputer, videodisc technology represents a tremendous opportunity for unprecendented student/print interaction. Allow me to expand through a fictitious example that may well be fact in a very few years:

The scene focuses upon a high school student seated at his desk (with its built-in, flat liquid quartz television screen which is linked directly to the central school data bank). The class is geography. As we enter.....

The student has just encountered a new and semi-unfamiliar word in his textbook, "rainforest." Picking up the light pencil attached to his desktop, he runs it over the work and thereby its invisible magnetically imprinted code. This information is fed instantly to the data bank which replies via his desktop screen with a definition for "rainforest" that fits the exact context of the textbook sentence and then shows him a brief series of still pictures taken on actual location along the Amazon. Finding himself interested, the student touches the screen at a certain point to request further information.

Now the computer signals "earphone" which he places in his ear. Then a series of maps, accompanied by vocal narration, inaudible to other class members, appears showing various rainforest locations. Diagrams and motion sequences describe natural resources and peoples indigenous to these areas. If he so desires, the student may spend several minutes in this process building his knowledge and vicarious experience. Sounds a little too futuristic? Not really. The necessary technology is already at hand and the First National Videodisc/Microcomputer Institute was held in 1979.

Electronic Libraries

A fourth and final area of the ongoing technological/reading partnership to deserve mention is the electronic library. Here all information is stored on computer or videodisc, ready for instant access. Once again, too futuristic? Not so. Interest in such a possibility has been strong since the mid 1950's, and today there are over 950 electronic data bases in existence with dozens more

being added each month, (Birmingham & Gilbert, 1982). All that is needed to tap in is a home computer terminal and a telephone line. In 1981, over 50 million accesses were recorded. Currently available electronic data bases include such areas as stock market information, wire service news, electronic games, language lessons, medicine, discount item shopping, rare books, and education.

Perhaps now you will understand why the revolution in electronics will alter man's access to printed material as much as Gutenberg's did in the 15th Century. We speak of the future as though it were something mysterious and far removed from everyday life, yet the truth is that the future is upon us.

SUMMARY

The technological and transpersonal philosophy and practices are presently viewed as contenders for the school's curriculum. Educators seem to be on one side, or the other, or on the traditional. We strongly feel that this oppositional view is not necessary nor desirable. For our society to reach the goal of greater personal and societal freedom, we need both models. They can co-exist, they can even complement one another. The transpersonal techniques can help us make better use of increased leisure time; increased creativity and productivity can lead to inner peace and visa versa; personal fulfillment due to technology can aid us in our development of self-actualization.

When in combination, we can use a wholistic educational process, educating and miximing the potential of the whole person. We can teach students to harmonize their internal and external environments by utilizing the best of both models.

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IMAGINATIVE PLAY AS A FACILITATOR OF PRE-READING SKILLS IN BILINGUAL EARLY CHILDHOOD SETTINGS

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Sociodramatic Play As Cognition

The amount of time spent playing has represented a significant element in a young child's schedule of activities and has represented a major opportunity for influencing the development of the child, particularly pre-reading skills. A type of play, sociodramatic play, has been defined by Curry and Arnaud (1974) as the capacity of the child to transform him or herself into another person, situation, or event as observed through the motoric or verbal actions used. Sociodramatic play of very young children has been of experimental interest over the past fifteen years. Results of previous research studies such as Smilansky (1968); Dutton-Smith (1971); Lovinger (1974); Levin (1977); and, Yawkey (1979) have indicated that sociodramatic play has ahd the potential to facilitate and or induce cognitive development. The research of Piaget (1962) has served as the basic foundation that play and cognition have developed simultaneously. In addition, Piaget (1962) stated that sociodramatic play was a basic and necessary condition for the development of thought structures. Researchers such as Saltz, Dixon and Johnson (1977); Smith and Dutton (1979); and, Yawkey (1980) have explored the facilitative effects of sociodramatic play on cognitive problem solving and language learning. Results of studies by Yawkey (1980) demonstrated that sociodramatic play encouraged and decreased response time on cognitive problem solving tasks in experimental versus control groups thus reinforcing Piaget's (1962) theory that sociodramatic play schemes were a necessary and instrumental condition for basic intellectual action required for intellect.

Sociodramatic Play and Its Relationship to Reading

Reading, often stated in its most fundamental definition, has been defined as the process of deriving meaning from the printed page or written words. Conceptual understanding of meaning has been related to cognitive development and the ability to understand representation as cited by Vygotsky (1962). Vygotsky theorized that the vehicle of sociodramatic play was essential in enabling a young child to build up stores of represented meanings necessary for success in learning to read. In similar agreement was Piaget (1962) who stated that sociodramatic play schemes were instrumental in the decreasing of a yound child's egocentric viewpoint of those elements surrounding him or her. Piaget

formulated his theory of cognitive development on four stages ranging from birth to adolescence. The significant stage reflecting the bulk of early childhood education is the preoperational stage ranging from near the age of 2 to the age of 7. The stage is characteristically associated with a lack of conceptual thinking on the part of the child, or the inability to make fine discriminations between ideas and objects. Thus, according to Piaget, it is this preoperational period that representational make-believe play tends to dominate the young child's activities.

According to Wolfgang and Sanders (1981), both Piaget and Vygotsky draw a direct relationship between representation in sociodramatic play and in reading, using the term symbols for the representation in play and signs for the representation in reading. As cited by Wolfgang and Sanders (1981), a symbol is defined as a projection, such as with toys or gestures, of the child's egocentric and personal ideas expressed externally in play. A sign, as in the written and spoken word, is a form of representation that is socially agreed upon and arbitrary in nature. Therefore, Piaget and Vygotsky both demonstrate the use of symbols in play by young children as providing the foundation used in representation that will be needed later when using higher abstract forms such as the written word. According to Wolfgang and Sanders (1981), research has been demonstrated to show that those children not developing the first level of representation, such as symbolic play, are the children who generally have had difficulty when entering the public school. The need, therefore, would point to increased activities in the preschool curriculum for imaginative or sociodramatic play activities in order to strengthen the development of pre-reading skills.

Reading has implied that communication can occur in the absence of another person. A young child must be able to act upon the symbols on the printed page in order to receive communication. The ability to derive meaning from symbols has been linked to sociodramatic play as group participation facilitated through negotiation and role standardization as cited by Fien (1979). The transition from an egocentric being to more of a social one has occurred thorugh group participation and role play. Thus, a young child should possess a high level of representational ability through play before starting the reading process.

Therefore, the importance of imaginative play as a precursor to reading has been established developmentally and theoretically. Representational ability has been shown to be necessary in becoming literate, as the prime instrument used for enhancing such an ability has been sociodramatic play. Play has provided the child with a means to progress through the stages of representational development. Imaginative play can be used as an effective agent in reducing the egocentric levels of young children and create the beginning of divergent thinking, critical to the reading process.

Fostering Pre-Reading Skills in Bilingual Children Through Sociodramatic Play

In addition to imaginative play, pre-reading development is also accomplished by fostering the young child's oral language, listening comprehension, and, experiences with printed material. The bilingual-bicultural child possesses two very important elements that he/she brings to the classroom setting; that is, a language and a culture. Even though the language may not be the dominant language, it is, however, an essential and integral means of communication. As a means of communication, the language of the child must be enhanced through the use of cognitively oriented structures and meaningful activities. An activity used to stimulate oral language development, which is essential to the reading process, is the use of symbolic or sociodramatic play. The case for a cognitively-oriented curriculum using play as the instrument for fostering pre-reading skills has already been documented in the previous section. The ideas for role play or sociodramatic play arise spontaneously from the children as they take on roles of their choice. Pretending that they are heroes and heroines, for example, free the children to enact roles and situations that are relevant to them at a particular time. Sociodramatic or role play has an ideal medium for learning because it is spontaneous, permits the bilingual children to use language and thought and to rehearse and practice skills basic to social, cognitive, and motor growth.

Through sociodramatic play, bilingual children learn to pretend and imagine being other people. It can be used without a total command of vocabulary and to instruct cultural and individualistic values. Role play can be used to develop a group working together, to establish and carry out mutual goals, and practice social identification. Establishing groups and rules, which guide the bilingual child's actions are meaningful and relevant ways for these children to begin to identify with individual and group cultural values. Sociodramatic play also contributes to individual sensitivity with others. In role play, the children learn to model and use appropriate social actions and behaviors in group settings. They learn to make appropriate comments and to express concerns and problems that arise. Thus, modeling and practicing through role play help to develop sensitivity toward others. It is a natural spontaneous and meaningful way to learn about themselves as well as to foster oral language development and pre-reading skills.

The following activities have been included in order to demonstrate ways of enhancing pre-reading through the use of play.

Example 1:

a. Objective: Helping children become aware of their own uniqueness and the uniqueness of others through the use of oral language and

imaginative play.

b. Materials: Five foot lengths of large brown paper, scissors, crayons, and magazines.

c. Procedures: Explain to the children that they are making a life sized paper cut-out of themselves using magazines and newspaper cut-outs of pictures. For example, favorite cartoon characters or T.V. personalities are excellent choices. When completed, these paper cut-outs are personal picture essays.

d. Variation: Have the children role play each other using the life sized paper cut-out that each has completed.

e. Outcome: Youngsters learn to recognize and appreciate their own uniqueness and the uniqueness of others through role play. In addition, children have a chance to share their private selves with others.

Example 2:

a. Objective: Recognizing and respecting the fact that everyone has feelings through the use of visual aids and role play.

b. Materials: Paper, felt tip pen and empty can.

c. Procedures: Start the discussion by relating an incident where someone's feelings were hurt because of something said. Ask the children what feelings are! Ask them if they can name some feelings! As they name the different feelings, write them on a strip of paper and draw a face mark indicating the feeling. Discuss how one can tell if a person is sad, happy, scared, or proud. After collecting all the strips of paper with particular feelings written on the strips, allow the children to act out these feelings. The can with the strips of paper is passed out to each child. The child, individually, acts out or role plays the feelings. The other children will try to identify the feeling. Suggested questions can be: Can you remember being hurt? How did you feel when your feelings were hurt?

d. Variation: Show children pictures or drawings of faces with varied expressions. Have them role play the pictures.

e. Outcome: Children become more aware of their different feelings and how their actions and words can affect others. Role playing can be used as effective instrument to develop positive feelings and children can begin to see printed material.

Example 3:

a. Objective: Recognizing cultural values of others through role playing.

b. Materials: Watercolor paints, scissors, construction paper.

c. Procedures: Children learn to associate themselves with a hero, heroine, or television personality. The instructor should choose a famous ethnic hero or heroine that is familiar to the children. Information about heroes and heroines and their cultures is distributed. Representatives from other ethnic groups can be discussed. The children can paint or watercolor drawings of their favorites.

d. Variations: Have the children role play their favorite ethnic hero or heroine.

e. Outcome: Students learn to recognize and appreciate the ethnicity of others through the role playing of heroes. Children learn to identify their own characteristics and traits through the qualities of ethnic heroes and heroines.

Example 4:

a. Objective: Helping the children appreciate individualistic values and differences of other children in their class.

b. Materials: Puppets made out of paper mache and a puppet stage.

c. Procedure: Have the children construct puppets made out of paper mache. A small can or other object coated with paper mache and set to dry make the head of the puppet.

Additional fabric can be used to make the rest of the puppet. Have the children create situations in which family or peer group is highlighted. Then, have the children role play their particular characters through the puppets. For the elementary curriculum, a story can be recorded and a learning experience approach can be developed.

d. Variation: Ask the children to role play other families as important persons.

e. Outcome: Youngsters learn to role play through puppets. They can acquire a sense of individualism exhibited through a form such as a puppet to express themselves without being under pressure. They can appreciate the individualism of others through puppet/role playing and evaluated by a learning experience approach.

As the examples have demonstrated, a young bilingual child must acquire representational skills in play before attempting to interpret those symbols into signs as in written and spoken words. A young bilingual child can manipulate a puppet and use a tremendous amount of oral language before even attempting to understand printed material. Piaget stressed that the learners had to reach his or her understanding about a concept or skill being learned. In order for learning to take place, experiences and information had to be processed and categorized. Therefore, sociodramatic play or role playing has enabled the child to acquire understanding about a concept before attempting to interpret printed matter.

In addition to sociodramatic or role play as a facilitator to reading, creative and versatile play materials can be used to stimulate motor and symbolic skills, oral language development, and representation. Play material environment should contain two conditions necessary for success:

1. flexibility of actions and
2. number of choices.

In preparing for conceptualization to occur before the introduction of signs, such as written words, the following play materials should be accessible for young children:

Building blocks

Building blocks come in a variety of sizes. There are large hollow blocks and large cardboard ones. Having hollow centers, the large hollow blocks are carried from place to place. There are also small building blocks called table blocks. They are smaller in size than the large blocks and made from wood.

Building sets

Building sets are very popular with young children. They are extremely flexible and have a large number of individual pieces. Depending on the brand names, examples of building sets are tinker-toys or "make-it-toys", Lincoln/Canadienne logs, lego, dominoes, ABC blocks, design cubes and parquetry sets.

Puzzles

The types of puzzles are: (a) formboards and, (b) jigsaws. Formboards, the most common puzzles for younger children, have removeable pieces or inserts. The inserts with knobs on them help the youngster hold, insert, and move them about. Jigsaws have more moveable pieces than formboards and do not come with knob-like "grips." Jigsaws have pictures on them such as animals, fruits, astronauts, and scenes of farms, zoos, and circuses.

Stacking materials

Stacking materials are either made from plastic or wood and contain a base (or platform) with a dowel securely inserted in the middle of the base and have individual pieces with holes in the center that vary in size. The child inserts the pieces through the dowel by size from largest to smallest or smallest to largest.

Stringing sets

Stringing sets consist of wax shoelaces, string, or chord and small round or cube-shaped, solid, wooden, or plastic pieces. The centers of each of the pieces are bored out. The youngsters thread the shoelace through the center or "eye" of the pieces.

Nesting toys

Nesting materials are made from either plastic or wood and vary in size and shape. The sizes vary from large to small and the shapes, for example, include dolls, boxes, treasure chests, animals, eggs and numerous others. The child's task is to place one piece inside the other to complete and ordered sequence.

Sand and Water

Sand and water can be found in nature or, obtained inexpensively. Both sand and water do not have definite shape. Instead they take the shape of the containers in which they are poured.

Clay

From learning shops, teacher's supply houses, and department stores, potter's clay, a particular variety of clay can be purchased. It can be patted, pounded, rolled, torn, cut, or squeezed

and its versatility makes it a success with tools such as cookie cutters, plastic knives, popsicle sticks, buttons, and others.

Wood

Softwoods such as white pine are ideal for constructing. Along with wood, hammers, long nails, sandpaper, glue, pliers, tenpoint saws and screwdrivers, the wood materials are a young child's delight.

Adult clothing

Men's, women's, big sister's and big brother's clothing that are worn out become very usable as student's play materials. It also includes items such as old shoes, high heels, flats, boots, petticoats, hats, suits, vests, ties, handbags, and old work-clothing.

Housekeeping toys

Housekeeping toys are miniature replicas of adult objects. Examples are: dolls, dolls' clothing, and carriages, cots, tables, chairs, ranges, refrigerators, and ironingboards. These types of materials deal with practical living skills of eating, sleeping, washing, and caring. Other examples include: pots, pans, dishes, cups, and silverware.

Transportation toys

Toy trucks, cars, trains, ships, airplanes, space vehicles and 1001 other kinds of vehicles comprise the transportation toys. Other varieties of transportation toys are: wagons, scooters, tricycles and "Big Wheels."

Animal toys

Miniature animal toys include cattle, dogs, cats, horses, tigers, elephants, and other examples from the farm, jungle, zoo, or circus. Another type of animal toy depicts people in various occupations and life styles and include: cowboys, daddies, mommies, soldiers, "monsters", and an unending variety of others.

Preparing the home and school setting with sound materials for adults to use as resource manuals and for the child to use in his or her world constitutes substantially to fostering and enhancing pre-reading skills in young bilingual children. Sound resource materials provide directions and ideas to teachers in working with children that need conceptualization of ideas.

Summary

The value of sociodramatic as well as related play activities contributing to the development of reading skills in young bilingual children has been presented. The importance of structuring cognitively-oriented activities through play provides a framework in which the young child can gradually shift from symbols such as projection used in role play to signs such as the printed page. The development of the first phase of representation such as symbolic play was also demonstrated to be important simply because it served as the foundation used in later development of abstract thought needed for reading and understanding the printed page. The decreasing of egocentric behavior as well as the beginning of divergent thinking, critical to social interactions, have been documented as integral outcomes of sociodramatic play. The establishment of sociodramatic play structures in an early childhood and elementary curriculum can produce cognitive developmental skills necessary to begin a successful reading program.

Most importantly, the development of oral language skills which are essential to the beginning of any reading program can be strengthened and nurtured through the kinds of varied social interactions acquired in sociodramatic play. The essence of play as a precursor to reading is an area of cognitive development that needs to be integrated into any early childhood and elementary curriculum, for play is in the nature of us all.

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A STRUCTURE TO REMEDIATION THROUGH ORAL LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

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It is important to first define oral language development. The word "infant" comes from the Latin word "infans" which means not speaking. Infants, or course, do not speak, however, their cries are a method of communication and people do respond to them.

From the first minute they are born, babies hear language and in a few weeks are responding to it by turning their heads when they hear a familiar voice such as their mother's. This response means they are starting to listen to what other people say. It is the first part of learning to converse.

When babies are around three months old, they begin to coo and at around ten months they begin to understand that words mean something. For example, they soon learn to wave their hand when they hear "bye, bye" or to pat their hands together when they hear "pat-a-cake." When this happens, it shows their understanding that certain words tell you to do certain things.

Around the end of the first year, children learn to say single words such as "dada," "mama," etc.. At approximately fifteen months, they learn to use one word to mean several words. For example, "drink" means "give me a drink."

By about twenty-one months children have the idea that everything has a name. This is the stage at which they begin to point and want everything named for them. At the age of 2½ to 3 years, children are forming whole sentences. They can use around 1,000 words and can understand 2,000 to 3,000 words.

Scientists aren't sure how children learn to talk, but they know that they must hear talking. Noam Chomsky believes that humans are born with a plan for talking and that learning to talk is like learning to walk. No one tells a baby to practice walking. They are eager to learn and seem to naturally lift themselves up and move from crawling to walking. They practice for hours on their own. The same is true for talking. Children learn to talk without lessons, and they practice on their own. The child has a drive for a natural success in language, listening, speaking, and ultimately reading and writing.

However, what happens to the child who does not hear constant dialogue? To the child whose dialogue is limited due to surroundings? To the child who is limited because those with whom he is in constant contact have a limited vocabulary? To the child who is like Leo, the Late Bloomer?

One of our biggest mistakes is in putting this child in a basal reader before his oral language skills have developed to the point at which he can achieve success. We seem to do this year after year and the inevitable happens. He fails. There is no way he can succeed and his failure lies at out door. We have set him up for failure. It appears that our process interrupts the natural phenomenon of language development by injecting a process that may not be perceived by the student as the next developmental stage in language. The student fails to bridge the transfer gap between the normal development of language and the reading process.

A breakdown in skill development with a lack of success brings about a low self-concept. Studies are now pouring in that show a high correlation between success in reading and a good self-concept. Since this is true, how can we put children in basal readers before they are ready? We are literally defeating the positive self-concept that we should, instead, be fostering. Once students have the attitude of "I'm dumb," "I'm stupid," "I can't,"-they really can't. Our Title I motto is, "Whether you think you can or think you can't, you're right." Once students have the "I can't" attitude, changing this is much more difficult than teaching a skill that they missed somewhere along the line. Therefore, it behooves us to be extremely cognizant of the fact that all children are not ready to go into a basal reader just because they walk into the classroom.

When students enter school they are usually excited about learning to read. Mom or older brothers or sisters have told them they are going to learn to read, and they have no doubts as to their success in this venture. As we work with them, we are building either on success or failure. If oral language skills are not developed to the point where success can be attained, then we need to develop our curriculum around language-based activities. Otherwise, this positive, excited attitude toward reading with which children enter school, is lost in a cloud of failure. If a child begins to fall behind, the gap between this child and the successful reader does not stay the same. It constantly widens. These are the ones we see in the remedial reading programs.

What do we mean by remediation? This is usually a program where poor readers are segregated in order to remedy a particular problem or problems in reading. Remedial programs have typically been what Moffett calls "a low-level technical approach where students are made to undergo a dull mechanical course of plowing through phonics workbooks and programmed test-read passages."

Much of it is fragmented into little bits and pieces which are meaningless to the student. Recently, we have moved this program into reading machines and computers. The format of the program is often the same --- fragmentation of the reading act. It appears that this method has failed with the vast majority of our youngsters. What, then, can we do?

When the process breaks down, should we not go back to the natural phenonmenon of language development through oral language development and build the transfer bridge rather than the traditional process which uses a variety of tools, media, isolated skills and gimmicks to break through the conceptual void?

In Phoenix, we are in our third year of an oral language development program in which our students have made highly significant gains in reading achievement.

The strengths of this program are:

1. It is a structured oral language development program which has eliminated the pitfalls of previous, less structured programs.

2. It accomplishes the same purposes as the traditional reading program:
   a. word attack skills,
   b. comprehension,

   ....but adds "love of reading" as a major purpose.

3. There is a basic understanding that reading is a process of advanced communication and that experience is basic to the growing process of communication.

4. Students are not asked to learn skills in reading before they have mastered them in their oral communication.

5. Conceptual skills are taught at an earlier age with simplistic information. These are later applied in the reading process.

6. Students are not taught isolated skills in meaningless situations.

7. It is a positive approach which builds on success.

There are several things that we must remember in eliciting meaningful language:

1. Children must be allowed to talk in order to develop oral language skills. If this sounds mundane, let me refer you to OROZCO (1979), who determined that as little as 12 seconds to as much as 3 minutes of formal use of language per child was solicited by elementary school teachers during the school day. When teachers did converse with children, it followed a pattern established by most basal reader manuals.

   If we are saying that oral language development is vital to a child's success in reading and they are given three minutes or less per day to talk in a meaningful situation, then we are doing very little to foster what is necessary to the child's success in reading.

2. We must accept the language children bring to school. This is difficult when we hear them say something such as, "I ain't got no book." We tend to pull back our shoulders, get a prim look on our face and say to them, "I have no book." Through this, we let them know that we do not accept their language. This is not only a put down for them, but for their parents as well, since they are probably the ones from whom their language was learned.

   This is not to say that we don't teach proper grammar or model for them. A much better way to answer the child who says, "I ain't got no book" would be to say, "Oh, you don't have a book? Here is one." It is of the greatest importance that we keep in mind our purpose and if our purpose is to develop oral language skills, then we accept the language they bring.

3. Children learn language as they participate in meaningful experiences. They cannot be out in a corner and told to practice on a ditto sheet or with a workbook which doesn't allow you to talk to yourself or even a fantasy character. It must be taught in a meaningful situation.

4. We should begin to focus upon the language developmental skills of an activity -- rather than the vehicle. (eg. making a cake).

   Too many times the concern is with the vehicle outcome that may go home to parents rather than with the language and learning that should take place, if encouraged.

5. The physical environment must be conducive to eliciting language. The key factor here is the understanding of

language use and willingness to structure the room so language can be carried on. There will need to be quiet areas, learning centers and whole group areas.

Now that the stage has been set, what are some things that can be done to elicit oral language?

Making word lists is an important activity to develop vocabulary and an awareness and love for words. Choose a topic and have the students brainstorm naming all the words they can think of that relate to that topic. As quickly as they say them, write them on the board. Later, transfer the words to a chart.

eg: Topic - "Dragons" --fiery, red, mean, scales, ugly, etc.

These word lists may be used in a number of ways such as alphabetizing, classification, graphing, story writing, word search, descriptive writing, newspaper hunt, code spelling and many others.

Key vocabulary is another way to stimulate student interest in words. Because this approach is so well known, I will not describe it in detail. However, there are a few things that must be mentioned. As you work with children, have them sit or stand beside you. Ask such questions as: "What letter do you think the word begins with? Do you know the next letter?" This is important because a child must learn these concepts:

1. What is a letter?

2. What is a word?

3. What is a sentence?

We cannot make the mistake of assuming that children already know these concepts. They don't understand that when there are some squiggles and a space and some more squiggles and a space that each of these sets of squiggles stands for a word. In speaking they hear "Whadduwant?" and do not realize that there are four different words. They hear it as one. Through the use of key vocabulary, word lists and language experience charts, they begin to understand the concept of a word within the language process.

Letter recognition is also a prerequisite to success in reading. This does not mean just being able to sing the ABC song.

Joan Tough has conducted a lot of research in the area of oral language development. She has listened to thousands of children talk and has classified language into seven functions.

Following is an overview of these functions along with some activities designed to elicit each function of language. These

are only a few of the activities selected from our language-based unit in order to illustrate.

I. SELF-MAINTAINING LANGUAGE

Language that is used primarily in an attempt to satisfy children's physical and psychological needs.

Examples of self-maintaining language are, "I want my milk now," or "You 're hurting me, go away."

The Element that is necessary is the presence of a desired object and/or task which is not available to all participants at once.

ACTIVITIES:

1. When conducting a unit on magnets, give the child who needs to develop self-maintaining language a very strong magnet and the others weak ones.

2. When making a pudding or cake, assign one child to lick the spoons and others such jobs as beating, measuring, etc.

3. Make a class What I Can Do book. Have students illustrate and write or dictate a sentence for each page. Begin each sentence with "I can ---."

4. Use a "Magic Box" with mirrors. Ask who they think would be the most important person in the whole world - the President? Teacher, Principal" Then invite each child to come up to see the picture of the most important person in the world. They are to keep their discovery a secret until all have looked into the magic box. They will see themselves in the mirror. Discuss why each one of them is most important.

II. DIRECTING LANGUAGE

Language that is used to direct and monitor our own actions and to direct and collaborate actions with others.

Examples of directing language are, "Put the marker here," or "You cut the paper and I'll stick it."

The Elements that are necessary are a sample of an item to be made or an activity to do and two or three children to work together.

ACTIVITIES:

1. Tasty Tummy Turkey. Objective: To elicit directing language by constructing a vegetable and fruit turkey from a model. Materials needed: Peach half, celery stick, licorice, pimento, hard boiled egg, raisins, paper plate, plastic knives.

   Procedure: Pair children in groups of two or three. Construct a sample turkey. Have the children observe the sample. Instruct them to duplicate the sample with the materials listed above. Let the students do as much preparation as possible, (peel egg, clean and cut the celery, etc.)

   Teacher's role is to observe language and assist as little as possible.

2. Bulletin Board Classmate Flowers. Provide a model of the flower, the pattern pieces and other materials required. Two children work together to make one flower. After it is finished, tell the pair to make another one so each will have a flower.

III. REPORTING LANGUAGE

Language that is used to report our present and past experiences, giving a commentary on what we see and recall.

Examples of reporting language are, "That little bus has a door in the back that opens," or "There's a little bus."

The Element that is necessary is sharing an experience with someone who did not originally participate in it.

ACTIVITIES:

1. Show and Tell. Children share ideas and experiences with the class.

2. Each child, on his own, cuts a picture from a magazine and pastes it on construction paper. The children give the pictures to the teacher who keeps them covered. One child at a time gets his picture and describes it thoroughly without saying its name. Others try to guess when the child is finished. (The teacher may have to do one or two for the class as a model.) What size, shape, color, etc.? What is it used for? What does it do? What is happening in the picture?

IV. LOGICAL REASONING LANGUAGE

Language that expresses the relationships a child recognizes within a particular experience, or the underlying reason for some course of action.

Examples of logical reasoning language are, "I don't think we'd better take that clock apart because we couldn't put it back together" or "I'm putting doors in this box because we need doors to put the cars in."

The Element that is necessary is a problem or situation that needs a solution.

ACTIVITIES:

1. Floating experiment.

   Materials needed: Plastic dishpan or bucket, bottles, nails, paper clips, corks, large and small pieces of wood, etc.

   Directions: Ask children to determine what will float. If children discover objects which will not float, ask them to try to find a way to make them float using the materials they have.

2. Teacher of class members suggest various situations which might occur in everyday life and discuss possible reactions to them. Try to lead thinking to constructive reactions. eg: You lost your lunch ticket on the way to school today. Someone hits you on the playground. Someone teases you.

V. PREDICTING LANGUAGE

Language that a child uses as he thinks about the future and relates it to relevant past experiences as a basis from which to anticipate and predict what the future events might hold.

Examples of predicting language are, "I'll put this flag on and it'll come crashing down" or "I'm going to paint a picture when I finish my milk."

The Element that is necessary is the anticipated outcome of a problem or problems.

ACTIVITIES:

1. Discuss pictures depicting problems.

2. Read a story involving problems but don't read the outcome. Let students predict the outcome.

3. How much can you hands pick up? Have a container big enough for children to reach into, 2/3 filled with pencil erasers and a bowl to put them into for counting.

   Each child predicts how many he can pick up in one hand. Then have each pick up a handful and count them. Make a chart of predictions and actual numbers picked up by each child.

VI. PROJECTING LANGUAGE

Language a child uses to project into other people's experiences or into situations that he has not actually experienced himself.

Examples of projecting are, "That boy spilled all the red paint and he doesn't like cleaning it up," or "He frightened his mother and she'll be cross."

The Element that is necessary is projecting into the experiences of others.

ACTIVITIES:

1. Cut out pictures that depict some feeling and ask what the characters are feeling.

2. Make a 12" x 18" book using construction paper, stapled or tied with yarn. Before putting it together, mark off paper in squares. Label each square with a feeling word. Place in activity center. Children will find magazine pictures and paste in with the appropriate word.

3. Give situations and have children project how they feel in that situation. eg: "Your brother just borrowed your favorite toy and broke it."

VII. IMAGINING LANGUAGE

Any of the other six functions of language within an imaginary setting.

Examples of imaginary language are, "You be the daddy and I'll be the mother," or "The moon's rising and strange creatures come to the woods to capture people who wander from the path."

The Element that is necessary is any fantasy producing situation.

ACTIVITIES:

1. Dramatic play centers such as a restaurant, store or beauty shop. This center should allow a child to lose himself in another world. It should include hats, old clothes, props, etc.

2. Puppets - Start out replicating a specific story. Later, read a story containing a general theme.

3. Paint or draw a picture of something you would like to do but have never done. Show the class your picture. Pretend you are really doing it and tell the class your experience.

In addition to using Tough's functions of language as a base for our program, Russell Stauffer's approach to language experience is also used. Our students do a lot of writing, including journal writing. The students are read to on a daily basis and dramatic play is an important part of this whole language approach.

In summary, the reading program and remedial program should not be based on a new invention of the wheel or more of the same that has not succeeded. The program should be based on sound research from psychology, child development, learning theory, reading research and the structure of language. If, in fact, all of these findings tell us how the human being and the phenomenon of language go together, our program suggests a consistent development of the process of the child and language.

The series of steps suggested would be as follows:

1. Build on the natural phenomenon of language within the child.

2. Structure language development skills within the activities of instruction.

3. Build vocabulary, comprehension, letter and word recognition as transfer to reading skills.

4. Be success oriented for positive self-concept.

5. Use language to truly teach that reading is just another way of communicating words and ideas.

Students, parents, society and educators talk about success and motivation, and yet gaps in the development process seem to stymie these. The only way to reverse that process is to remember that the development of language is still going on even with a student who is our greatest reading failure. Why can't we build on that positive aspect to turn the corner toward reading success?

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AN EXPLORATION AND DEFENSE OF THE HUMOR IN YOUNG ADULT LITERATURE *

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Humor is an important element in determining what teenagers choose to read. Although their choices differ from those of both children and adults, they are understandable when looked at in relation to teenagers' interests, levels of maturity and experience, and intellectual and psychological development. Significant characteristics of the humor most often chosen for free reading by teenagers are listed below:

1. The allusions and parodies are based on things well known by teenagers. This is why they enjoy the home and family-centered writing of Erma Bombeck more than they enjoy the political writing of Art Buchwald.

2. As teenagers leave behind the innocense of childhood, they reject sweetness and are atracted to an exaggerated grossness - for example, the kind of language used by Holden Caulfield in J. D. Salinger's Catcher in the Rye and by his hundreds of imitators.

3. The reason that much of their non-fiction pleasure reading revolves around trivia books such as The Guinness Book of Records, Ripley's Believe it or Not, The People's Almanac, and The Book of Lists I and II, is that these books show just how weird, how bizarre, and how unusual people and the world can be. Teenagers are expecially curious about this because as they leave childhood and their parents' homes, they will have both the freedom and the obligation to find their own place in life.

4. Humorous treatments of serious topics allow teenagers to gain insights into developmental tasks such as deciding just who they are, establishing relationships with friends of the opposite sex, achieving independence from parents and other adults, and developing a set of values and ethics to serve as guides for behavior.

5. The level of literary and linguistic sophistication ranges from the most childish and obvious as seen in riddle and joke books to extremely sophisticated as seen in adult books that teenagers enjoy, one example being Catch 22 by Joseph Heller.

In conclusion, contrary to the old idea that if something is fun, it can't be good for you, humorous literature forces teenagers to be active instead of passive readers. As they mentally stretch to "catch-on," they are training themselves to become expert in the subtle manipulation of symbols, a uniquely human feature of language. As Alvin Toffler points out in The Third Wave, young people will spend much of their lives manipulating symbols rather than manipulating goods.

*The complete paper will be published in the Journal of Reading.

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COMMUNICATION-ORAL AND OTHERWISE
(Teacher to Teacher-Informal Notes)

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Sometimes as we work with developing reading skills - especially decoding, we forget that we are looking at sub-skills within larger skills which are only a part of the whole area of communication. Happily, there has recently been a growing interest and increasing attention to the relationship between reading and writing. This presentation was planned to emphasize the relationship between oral language and reading - listening and speaking - the other aspects of communication.

This seems to be especially necessary in an area like Arizona where we work with many children whose primary language is not English, and many whose home culture does not support the concepts and vocabulary we use. Choral and dramatic experience in listening, and listening and speaking, can free the inhibited student to verbalize and develop the rhythm and melody of the language.

Some activities that can be used and in which a group can participate include:

1. Listening to stories
2. Listening and participating with refrains and responses
3. Choral reading
4. Original choral readings developed by students
5. Readers' Theatre
6. Television programs
7. Playacting

Students may not only participate in the selection of the activities, but in writing and organizing them as well. The above only represent a limited selection of listening-speaking activities. The intent is to remind concerned educators that "communications" involves all these areas, that each can and should reinforce the others, and it's a lot more interesting and generally more fun!

WHAT'S NEW?
PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS OF READING RESEARCH

Lyndon W. Searfoss
Janet Bowerman Curran
Debra J. Elliott
Mary Ann Lawson
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Research is not supposed to be practical and useful to classroom teachers. So goes another misconception in reading education! The abstracts of research presentations below represent concrete evidence to the contrary. The graduate students presenting gave the participants practical, useful applications of research based on reviews of studies or an investigation they had done. While it is not possible to present the papers in their entirety, it is clear from the abstracts that research can be of value to teachers in classrooms.

Lyndon W. Searfoss

Reading Comprehension and Manipulative Thinking Skills
by
Janet Bowerman Curran

In recent research presented by Kenneth Kavale and Robert Schriener, the relationship between reasoning strategies and reading comprehension was examined.

The study investigated reasoning strategies used by average and above average students in responding to standardized measures of reading comprehension. Reasoning strategies were identified that enabled the reader to search for an optimal solution; that is, the correct answer to the comprehension questions.

The experimental procedure used in the study was a modified protocol analysis technique in which subjects were directed to first read a series of questions following a passage and then think about their reasons for accepting or rejecting the answers that followed. The verbal protocols were then analyzed for evidence of reasoning strategies. Subjects' responses were categorized according to a classification scheme for reasoning strategies and comparisons were made of reading abilities and strategies.

Significant differences were found between average and above

average readers in the magnitude and variety of the reasoning strategies used. First, the above average readers appeared more active in their attempts to achieve understanding. Second, the above average readers were able to use alternative reasoning strategies for particular types of questions to respond correctly; thus, demonstrating an evidence of a greater flexibility in their ability to think and reason verbally. The average readers were not as successful in selecting useful alternative strategies in responding to differing types of questions, the net result being a lower level of comprehension by them for the passage read.

It is my contention that these findings support the need for a reading curriculum to include within its basic goals and objectives, an emphasis upon manipulative thinking skills. Such skills include classification, sequencing, selection of main idea or theme, inferential reasoning and critical thinking.

In the process of learning to read, as the child learns the meaning of the content words in a passage, he/she must also be able to determine the relationships between and among those content words. The relationships may be: cause and effect, propositional, or comparison-contrast. The child must be able to actively group the words into informational phrases or idea units, and structure-restructure, categorize or recategorize the information into a comprehensable whole.

The ability to employ manipulative thinking skills allows the child to determine the relationships and thus, comprehend the written message. Consequently, a variety of games and activities should be utilized by classroom teachers to aid in the development of manipulative thinking skills.

Kavale, K., & Schreiner, R. The reading processes of above average and average readers: A comparison of the use of reasoning strategies in responding to standardized comprehension measures. Reading Research Quarterly, 1979, 15, 102-128.

Formal or Informal Tests Of Number Knowledge?

by

Mary Ann Lawson

The purpose of the study was to investigate the contribution of number knowledge to the prediction of three areas of reading: phonics, reading skills involving meaning, and global reading achievement.

Data was collected in twenty-two first grade classrooms in seven elementary schools in Bango, Maine. Children were randomly selected for the study and included one hundred twenty-four boys

and one hundred seventeen girls. Classroom teachers obtained measures of reading readiness using the Metropolitan Readiness Test Form A. Mental ability was measured using the Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test, Elementary I. Field dependence-independence was measured using the Portable Rod-and-Frame Apparatus and the Children's Embedded-Figures Test. Specific reading skills were measured using the Metropolitan Achievement Tests, Primary I and II. Stepwise multiple regression was used to determine the contribution of number knowledge and alphabet letter names to reading ability and skills.

Two variables consistently recurred as predictors of reading ability in this study - number knowledge and knowledge of alphabet letter names.

The findings bring into question the practice of giving expensive, time-consuming tests to first graders when predictive information may be more easily obtained from simple informal tests of number knowledge and knowledge of alphabet letter names. This is especially important at a time when school districts are particularly concerned with spending money. This informal kind of testing provides useful information at a minimal cost. Teachers must be careful however, when considering these informal tests as preliminary screening devices as they may not provide an accurate view of a child's entire reading behavior as he/she progresses through school. Teachers can use the information from these tests to do initial grouping in the classroom but must be aware of the progress of each child in the reading program and make adjustments in groups when necessary.

Dermott, R. A., Pinzari, S. J., Roberts, D. E., and McIntire, W. G. Number knowledge for prediction of specific reading skills and achievement in first graders. Reading Improvement, 1980, 17, 86-93.

Notetaking Activities To Facilitate Study Skills

by
Debra J. Elliott
Joan M. Tice

Literature has shown that high school students and freshmen entering universities and colleges do not possess some skills that are considered prerequisite for successful completion of some post-secondary tasks (Thomas, 1978; Driskell, 1980; Martens, 1981). Consequently, programs and activities have been designed to facilitate the development of these skills (Ausubel, 1960; Parham, 1977; Craik, 1980; Driskell, 1980; Solon, 1980; Readence, 1981). Additionally, these skill developments are intended to be transferred to the actual tasks that face post-secondary students.

Measurement of the acquisition of these past deficient skills (ie. test taking, notetaking, time management, etc.) is difficult to assess; faculty members at universities and colleges are generally not trained to give instruction in necessary study skills.

Do college freshmen perceive themselves as lacking in study skills and moreover, do they perceive themselves as ever having had instruction in study skills development? If freshmen do in fact, believe they are deficient in these necessary skills, which of the study skills do they perceive as most lacking?

With these questions in mind, the researchers (Elliott & Tice), administered a survey to 473 freshmen (248 male, 205 female) enrolled in randomly selected English 101 classes -- selecting students who were in their first week of attendance in a post-secondary institution. They were asked to respond to statements about their perceptions of their study skills. A frequency distribution of their responses was made.

The students' responses indicated that a significant number of students did not perceive having ever had study skills instruction. Additionally, a deficiency in notetaking instruction and activities was the study skill which most students perceived that they lacked.

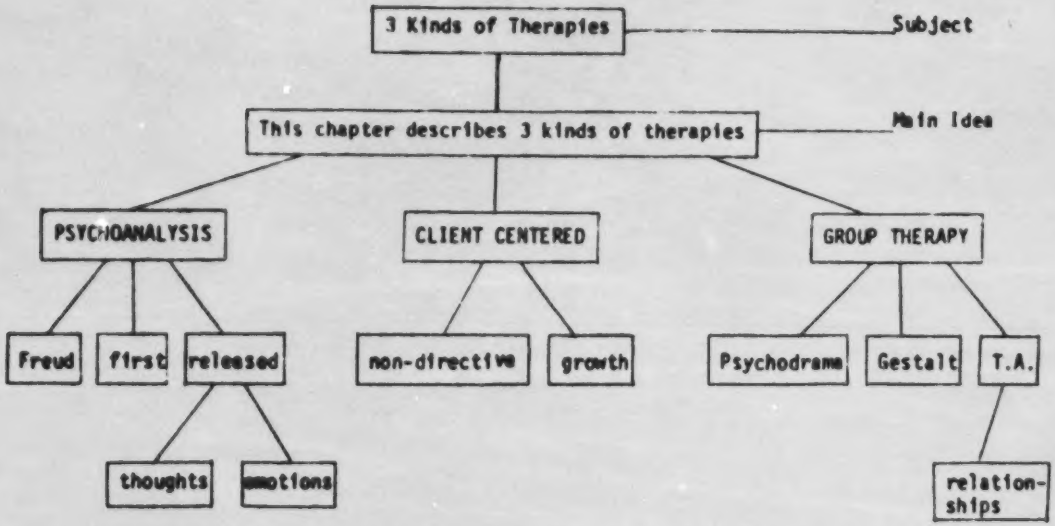
The author's concluded, based on these preliminary findings, that notetaking instruction in post-secondary institutions is needed and that this instruction should take place in the English 101 classes in which all freshmen are required to enroll.

In applying the preliminary results of this informal study, the authors have compiled some suggested notetaking activities for high school teachers and post-secondary instructors.

"Pyramid Diagram" Activity
(Solon, 1980)

1. Students read a chapter summary. (see example)
2. Students read aloud facts from the summary.
3. Instructor writes each fact on an index card.
4. Students organize cards into piles and label each pile (using another card).
5. A diagram is written on the board using the grouping(s) done by the students.
6. Subject box will answer the question, "What's the whole thing about?"
7. Main catagories and key words are added. (key words are supportive details)
8. Determine the main idea. Ask, "What's the author saying about the subject?"

PYRAMID DIAGRAM



Selon, Carol. "The Pyramid Diagram." Journal of Reading, vol. 23 (April 1980), pp. 595.

Mapping: A technique for improving comprehension and retention of what is read and heard.

Mapping is a graphic representation of the intellectual content of a lecture, a chapter in a text, or a journal article. This method can assist the "receiver" to organize incoming information or to place information in an already organized graphic structure.

How to Make a Map from Written Materials:

1. Skim through the section to be mapped in order to ascertain the primary thesis or main idea. ("What is the whole thing mainly about?")

2. Write a main idea of the selection on a sheet of paper and encircle it or put a box around it. (This can be placed in the center of the sheet or at the top).

3. Think briefly about what you may already know concerning the topic and try to hypothesize as to what might be considered in the selection. (Predictive question: "What do I already know about this?" "What do I think the author will say about it?")

4. Categorize, and organize the secondary categories that support the main idea. A possible alternative to this method is to use the chapter sub-section titles as the secondary categories.

5. The reader must now carefully read for details. ("In talking about these major points, the author used some definitions, mentioned some people, and gave some examples.")

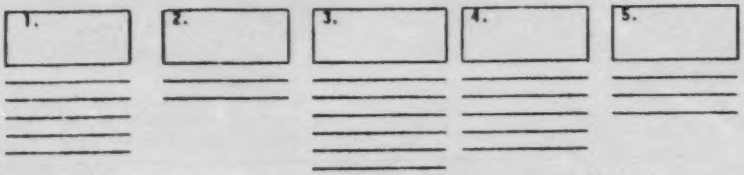
Maps can also be made from a lecture or discussion. It is also useful for taking notes in a meeting where there is a major topic with several people contributing and digressions are common.

"Mapping" Examples

A.

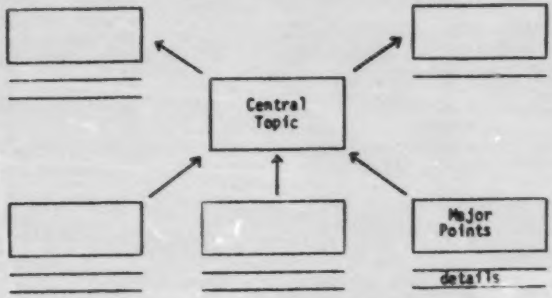
"What is the whole thing about?"

"What do I know about this?"
"What do I think the author will say about it?"
"Let's see, the author talked about...."



Test Review: "Which of the main points do you think will be covered most on the test?"
(Answer: "Probably main points 1,3, and 4.")

B. The following type of map does not represent a "top-down" structure but rather indicates a central theme with equivalent major points leading to or away from the central theme or central topic.



*Note: The direction of the arrows indicates the different relationship the major points have to the main topic and visa versa.

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COMMON QUESTIONS ABOUT DIRECTED READING-THINKING ACTIVITIES

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Whenever reading comprehension is discussed in texts (Tierney, et. al., 1980) and journal articles (Manzo, 1980), the Directed Reading-Thinking Activity, a major instructional strategy based on scientific method, is usually mentioned. The Directed Reading-Thinking Activity (DRTA) as developed by Russell Stauffer (1969) has become a major alternative to instructional methodology presented in many of today's basal reading materials. While the Directed Reading Activity (DRA) is valuable for some instructional purposes, the DRTA can be used effectively to help students develop higher levels of thinking and comprehension than some other methods, and it is being advocated more frequently today.

Pertinent and practical questions concerning DRTA methodology are often raised. Answers to these questions may be helpful to those wishing to learn DRTA procedures. This article addresses many of the most common questions asked by people who are being introduced to DRTA techniques. Generally, two categories of question questions are asked:

1. questions about the use of DRTA, and
2. questions about predictions.

Questions About the Use of DRTAs.

Q. How much of the initial success of DRTAs can be traced to motivation based on interest in a new situation?

A. Undoubtedly the "Hawthorne effect" is present. Students are usually quite enthusiastic the first few times they are asked to offer opinions and predictions. This may be because often they have not been permitted, or asked, to express their views previously. The important thing, however, is to maintain this enthusiasm. No method will continue to be fresh and exciting unless the teacher keeps it interesting and creatively varies the approach.

Q. How many sessions, generally, does it take to acquaint students with DRTAs when they are accustomed to the Directed Reading Activity?

A. It may take as few as two or three or as many as twelve or more DRTA sessions to acquaint students with these activities. Much depends upon the age and reading levels of the students. It is wise to build readiness for DRTAs by influencing cognitive behaviors during Seeing-Thinking and Listening-Thinking Activities. (Valmont,

1976, Valmont, 1977).

Q. How often should DRTA reading instruction be used?

A. DRTA methodology should be introduced and practiced frequently early in the students' schooling. In addition, the methodology must be reinforced and extended throughout the years, since transfer from fiction to non-fiction to content area reading is not automatic. DRTA procedures will not become habitual without extensive practice. DRTAs should be conducted in various ways in order to eliminate a redundant pattern of presentation which might become tedious over a period of time. Other methods of reading instruction may also be interspersed with DRTAs to meet other instructional purposes.

Q. Can DRTAs be used with pre-schoolers?

A. The methodology may be used. Children may be introduced to Seeing-Thinking Activities with picture-story books without words, or parents may conduct Listening-Thinking Activities when reading to children. In daily conversation, "What do you think?" and "Why do you think that?" make good questions.

Q. What stories excite students most for DRTAs?

A. Probably no single story will excite all students in a group, even though this is quite desirable. Conversely, any story can be boring if the teacher overworks it. DRTA methodology offers a compromise: when materials are not intrinsically interesting, students have opportunities to find some aspect of the stories or discussions to arouse their interest.

Q. Can the DRTA approach be used with all types of readers?

A. All students can think! Many pupils with reading problems have a great deal of intelligence, but have not yet learned to read well. By placing students in reading materials at their correct instructional levels and by adjusting discussions and expectancies to a wide range of performances, teachers may help most students become thinking readers.

Q. How are DRTAs used with bilingual children who are in the first grade and who have very little English speaking vocabulary?

A. Seeing-thinking and Listening-thinking Activities may be used to develop concepts and vocabulary with non-English speaking children. Later, when the students develop some fluency in English, they may apply these strategies to reading instruction which follows DRTA procedure. Directed thinking activities may be conducted in other languages as well as in English.

Questions About Predictions.

Q. Do students tend to try to compete with one another rather than make probable predictions?

A. Competition may be intense during early experiences with DRTA methodology. Students may desire to say something rather than something logical based upon evidence. This appears to be a necessary stage of development for many students to go through. During this period, teachers must establish the necessity of using evidence as the basis for prediction. This may be accomplished by continually emphasizing that students must offer proof as to why they think their predictions are tenable.

Q. When students are critical of another student's predictions (especially if they are obviously wrong or absurd), what do you tell them?

A. Students are correct in being critical of illogical or absurd statements. Such predictions should not go unchallenged. The issue is probably the manner or tone of the criticisms. Teachers should not permit students to be ridiculed, so it is necessary to present guidelines which will enable students to be both critical, in the sense of evaluative, and courteous. Students can learn to say, "I disagree because....." instead of, "You're dumb. It's...."

Q. Since one of our difficulties in reading is to see what we want to see, or to understand what we expect to understand, wouldn't this approach compound this difficulty?

A. On the contrary, group DRTA training helps students overcome this kind of myopia. Other students in the group will provide evidence to prove students wrong if they ignore evidence. Soon all will learn to base their observations on materials in the selection and not on prior ideas or opinions only. Changes in behavior often occur because of the scrutiny of the group. Awareness of a "myopia" problem during group interaction should enable students to become more cautious when following DRTA procedures independently.

Q. What do you do about students who love to predict, but then won't read?

A. Check the following: Are students placed in reading materials they can handle (correct instructional level)? Are predicting sessions fun because "anything goes," or are students being trained to use evidence and logic when predicting? Do students know the purposes of predicting? Are group DRTAs being offered without first building readiness through Seeing-Thinking or Listening-Thinking Activities?

Q. How should you make the students feel about their predictions?

A. Let students know that if their predictions grow logically out of the evidence presented they are "good" predictions, even if they do not lead to the same outcomes which the author created.

Q. Is there any way you can help students get more of their predictions right?

A. Find out where their thinking goes wrong and help them understand their faulty thinking. Also, make certain they are placed in materials at their correct instructional level.

Q. What if students do not predict correctly each time they are asked? Does this discourage their interest in reading?

A. Students should neither expect nor be expected to predict correctly all of the time. If a student rarely predicts correctly, however, he/she may be in inappropriate reading materials and adjustments need to be made.

Q. Must students have a background on the subject you will be presenting in order to make successful predictions?

A. Yes. Generally, students will have some knowledge of a topic. Information which was presented earlier, possibly orally, either by you or previous teachers may now come into use. When the content is unfamiliar, pictures or graphs may be used also as the basis of predicting.

Q. Does the DRTA penalize a timid student or one with limited verbal communication abilities?

A. DRTAs will not, but teachers who fail to take pupils' capabilities into account often do.

Q. What are some ways to draw out shy or non-participating students?

A. At first, be patient and accept even the smallest contributions. Later, encourage more. Praise any fruitful endeavor, no matter how small. When you ask a student for a statement, get a reply even if this means moving to other children and coming back later for the response.

Q. How do you get students who are academic failures to come out of their shells?

A. Treat their ideas with respect. Ask for and value their opinions. Show them that their logical thinking is getting better. Insure that materials are within their range of experiences and capabilities.

Q. What can you do if you ask students for a prediction, and they say "I don't know."?

A. Simply say, "I know you do not know, because you have not read that part yet. I want to know what you think will happen." Do not accept a "cop-out" when you ask students to offer their thinking about matters which they are perfectly capable of addressing.

Q. How do you keep students on the track of predicting as opposed to asking questions? Do you accept one kind when most students are asking the other?

A. Asking questions may be a valid form of prediction, so do not be concerned which way students make their thoughts known.

Q. I have several students who have not yet attempted to predict. Instead, they would rather say something to get a laugh -- in short, disrupt the thinking of the rest of the class. What can I do?

A. Keep calm. Other students will soon tire of having their sessions disrupted and will help quell the disrupters. In addition, those who are disrupting may soon encounter something which interests them. If necessary, discuss expectancies of conduct with the entire group or class.

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ARIZONA CAT RESULTS-USES AND ABUSES
PUT UP OR SHUT UP

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School districts seem to have enough problems with declining enrollments, decreasing birthrates, decreasing budgets, etc.. In spite of these problems, they are faced with increasing demands: demands for higher salaries, increased expenditures for instructional materials, and increased testing.

It doesn't seem to make any difference whether more testing is desired by school district administrators, boards, or teachers. Public support and confidence regarding public education has been declining rapidly. Our citizens are no longer satisfied with glowing testimonials from school personnel. Their cries are being heard more and more by legislators. Our legislators recognize the political advantages of supporting and pursuing these issues, and the result is, whether we like it or not, that our testing programs are now in the political arena and will, with all probability, be there for a long while. We are in the age of "accountability" and assessment is a key part of it. Legislation in Arizona attests to this fact.

We now have CUES, minimal competency testing, promotional standards, graduation requirements, and recently the California Achievement Tests (CAT). State Departments of Education are responding to legislation and legislative demands. This is true not only in Arizona but the other states as well.

It appears obvious to me that accountability, assessment, and standardized tests are here to stay. The educational community, and I'm including the State Department of Education, needs to recognize this, and come to grips with the inherent issues. With these thoughts in mind, I have decided that a better title for what I have to offer would be "PUT UP or SHUT UP."

Let's not let political bodies, special interest groups, or outsiders interpret CAT test results for us or use the media to inappropriately effect public support and confidence. Let's be ready, Let's be responsive, Let's beat them to the punch, Let's "PUT UP" and let the non-educational community "SHUT UP."

We need to be aware of the criticisms of standardized tests. Once we are aware of the criticisms we can then "PUT UP" by setting them aside and saying; "Here is the way we use the tests, and how we find them beneficial." Let's be positive in our approach.

There are literally hundreds of criticisms of standardized tests. These criticisms appear to come from the educational community. They do not seem to originate with our citizens, our public, or even parents. Standardized tests have characteristics which appeal to the taxpayers-those who support education financially. They offer alternatives to the "glowing testimonials" mentioned earlier. They appear to offer objective, external, credible, and norm-referenced indicators of how and maybe even what the schools are doing. Standardized achievement tests do have limitations and are subject to misuse and misinterpretation. For these reasons, criticisms are inherent in the "beasts." One author I read emphasized this rather dramatically when he indicated that often our reactions to standardized tests are like taking a sledge hammer to our family car because it doesn't wash clothes. Thus, we need to recognize that many of the criticisms of tests are aimed at what they seemingly do, or do not do, and what individuals perceive as the effects of the tests.

Let me just mention a few of the often stated criticisms of tests to refresh your memory (Airasian, 1979):

1. They measure only a small portion of what teachers and schools are trying to do.

2. They are constructed on the assumption that half the pupils tested will be below average.

3. They take for granted that everybody places equal value on the skills being tested.

4. These tests assume a common set of curriculum objectives.

5. They are biased in favor of white, middle class children.

6. They are impersonal, ambiguous, and irrelevant.

7. They are not diagnostic.

8. They do not measure the goals or objectives of different or innovative instructional programs.

9. They do not measure creativity, interest, or values.

10. They do not assess learning; they only compare students' achievement.

11. They label or mislabel students.

12. They dominate school curricula.

13. They foster competition.

14. They arouse fear and anxiety.

15. They are just not valid.

There is a great deal of literature devoted to refuting and supporting these and many more criticisms of standardized tests.

The major point to bear in mind is that a criticism of a standardized test does not necessarily mean that the test is being misused. For example, even though a label is attached to a student via a standardized test, this does not necessarily mean that the test was being misused. Misuse occurs, for example, when the test was the sole criterion for making the decision about the student.

Let's take a look at several potential misuses of standardized tests, (Airasian, 1979). Perhaps it would be more appropriate to label what I have to offer as "cautions." Incidently, I'm not saying anything that test publishers do not say. I'm probably only reinforcing their advice.

First, it is a misuse of a standardized test when teachers, parents, or administrators make decisions based upon a test score without recognizing that a test score is subject to error. To say, for example, that Johnny is below average because he has scored at the 43rd or 46th percentile is a misuse of the test score. I frequently look at stanine scores rather than percentile scores because although stanines are not as precise as percentiles, they offer a greater probability of incorporating this element of error into the interpretation.

A second misuse of tests, and closely related to what I just said and have mentioned earlier, takes place when decisions are made using a test score as the sole criterion in decision making. When looking at a school's test performance it would be most wise to consider other types of information. For example: occupational levels of parents, using current census data gathered locally or at least using publications like Foresight 80 or Inside Phoenix; median years of schooling of adults 25 years old and over; an index of mobility - i.e. percent of pupils receiving their education within the district for all years preceding each grade tested, indicators of aptitude, percent of teachers holding graduate degrees; median years of professional experience of teachers; professional staff/pupil ratio; teacher pupil/ratio; and, other data of local significance such as minority composition or distribution, primary language or language fluency.

These data could be collected by classroom, building or school, district or county. It would certainly seem appropriate for the district superintendent to use such information when viewing his district. I would hope legislators would have access to this type of data for districts, or even counties, when making decisions regarding budgeting expenditures or allocations.

Let me emphasize the importance of this type of data or information in another manner. In the summer, 1981 issue of the Journal of Educational Measurement, Roger F. Baglin published an article entitled "Does 'Nationally" Normed Really Mean Nationally?" Dr. Baglin, in his investigation of "self-selection bias" found in norming samples, looked at the CAT sample characteristics. He was attempting to determine to what extent a district's participation in the national norming study was related to the district's (a) use of the same achievement test series or an achievement test series from the same publisher and, (b) use of instructional materials from the same test publisher or its parent company. Publishers were contacted to obtain lists of districts invited to participate in the norming studies. Accepting and declining districts were determined using this list and published technical information. It is worth of note that for the CAT 77, the publisher was unwilling, or unable, to provide the detailed information requested. A list of first-selected districts was provided which the author used to estimate the total number of declining districts. The percentage of invited districts (1054*) which actually accepted was estimated to be 13% (137) for the CAT 77. The author indicates this figure certainly leaves room for self-selection bias to creep in.

Using both accepting and declining districts, displayed in a contingency table, the author reveals that whereas 39.8% of the invited districts used CAT or earlier editions, 44.8% of the accepting districts used CAT or earlier editions. Also, whereas only 24.7% of the invited districts used McGraw-Hill instructional materials related to reading, 44.9% of the accepting districts used McGraw-Hill instructional materials related to reading.

Dr. Baglin concluded from his study that the actual national norming samples, which claim to be random, are in reality highly selected.

I've concluded from this study that to ignore the characteristics of the norming group is a little like playing poker against a stacked deck. It pays to know with whom you are playing. It pays to know and point out the characteristics of the norm group. Most important, you can make a better decision if you know these characteristics and characteristics of your class, school, district, or county.

Let me move to a third misuse of standardized tests. When one presumes that a test entitled "achievement" test is measuring

achievement for all children in all situations, one could be making a faulty assumption. For a group of Mexican American children an achievement test might very well be measuring their verbal fluency, language fluency, home environment, social status or even the nature of instruction received. If such a group of children are spending their time in school in remedial reading, remedial physical education, English as a second language, and speech therapy, can we really believe that a mathematics achievement test is measuring achievement specifically related to school learning?

The misuse of standardized tests, and standardized achievement tests specifically, points out the necessity of careful test selection, and reinforces the need to consider multiple factors in decision making.

Let me just touch upon one more misuse of tests. When one draws inferences of cause-effect relationships from test scores, the test score is being misused. A test score is a quantative description or estimate of an individual's or group's performance at a given time. When someone interprets a test score based upon some judgmental criterion and attempts to draw inferences about what caused such a test score or why one test score is higher than another, this interpreter needs to recognize the hazards of trying to draw cause-effect conclusions without reference to some of the other factors mentioned earlier which must be considered in context. Again, using a test score as a sole criterion in decision making enters the picture.

One needs to recognize that these misuses are obviously not mutually exclusive and they overlap considerably. They are general in nature. Many of the criticisms, and many more specifically cited misuses, can probably be viewed in the context of one of these general areas. For example, the criticism that tests label kids can be viewed in the context of using test scores as the sole criterion for making decisions regarding these kids. Labels are not in and of themselves necessarily bad. We all have names, these are labels. However, the real danger of labels occurs when it is based on a single test score.

All forms of measurement, whether it be standardized tests or observations, have limitations and can be misused. Teachers, administrators, legislators, and our public need to recognize that measurement only provides one piece of information and the more information one has the better one is able to make a sound decision.

Enough of misuses, let's turn our attention to test uses.

Tests are used by teachers, administrators, legislators, parents, and others. Each of these utilize tests for different purposes.

Basically teachers use tests to make decisions about their classrooms, i.e. for such things as: determining childrens' strengths and weaknesses, selecting instructional approaches, or altering day-to-day classroom procedures. I might add that classroom teachers tend to use tests and make decisions regarding these rather well.

The materials provided by the test publishers and the State Department of Education can aid the classroom teacher in effectively using the test results (Arizona Department of Education, 1981). Someone needs to show them how they might use the materials and information available. This is where principals or test coordinators can be of great assistance. I do not want to repeat or dwell on reports available to teachers, schools, districts, etc.. This is handled very well in those materials. Let's take a look at one or two ways in which teachers might use test results and available materials.

One way teachers can use their test results and materials very quickly is to verify their own observations or assessment of his/her students. If these do not agree, it may suggest that additional diagnostic testing would be appropriate. For example, when the teacher says, "I would have thought Johnny would have done better in his consonants (phonic analysis) or reading vocabulary," the teacher may want to do some additional diagnostic testing to gain some specifics.

Teachers need to be familiar with the objectives of the CAT (CAT Manual - Appendix, 1979). For example, objectives 17-43 specifically deal with reading. These are specified in terms of phonic analysis, structural analysis, reading vocabulary, and reading comprehension:

CAT OBJECTIVES

Phonic Analysis

17. The student will recognize sounds of single consonants.

18. The student will recognize sounds of consonant clusters.

19. The student will recognize sounds of consonant digraphs.

20. The student will recognize variant sounds of single consonants.

21. The student will recognize sounds of consonant clusters and consonant digraphs.

22. The student will recognize short vowel sounds.

23. The student will recognize long sounds of vowels and vowel combinations.

24. The student will recognize short sounds of vowels and vowel combinations.

25. The student will recognize short and long sounds of vowels and vowel combinations.

26. The student will recognize diphthong sounds of vowel combinations.

27. The student will recognize variant sounds of vowels and vowel combinations.

Structural Analysis

28. The student will recognize compound words, syllables, and contractions.

29. The student will recognize base words and affixes.

Reading Vocabulary

30. The student will select a word that belongs in a specified category.

31. The student will select a word that matches an oral definition.

32. The student will identify words or phrases that have the same meaning.

33. The student will identify words that have opposite meanings.

34. The student will identify the correct definition of a multi-meaning word that has been used in a sentence.

Reading Comprehension

37. The student will infer meaning and analyze characters.

38. The student will infer meaning.

39. The student will analyze characters.

40. The student will interpret figurative language

Critical

41. The student will discriminate between real and unreal elements.

42 The student will analyze author attitude or position.

43 The student will analyze persuasion techniques.

They also need to be aware of grade levels or test levels where each of these objectives are emphasized (CAT Manual, 1978): (See Tables 1 and 2).

Table 1

RANGE OF CATEGORY OBJECTIVES FOR READING, CAT C AND D

TEST	CATEGORY OBJECTIVE	Grade Level								
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
PHONIC ANALYSIS	17 Single consonants	•								
	18 Consonant Clusters	•								
	19 Consonant Digraphs	•								
	20 Variant Single Consonants		•							
	21 Consonant Clusters/Digraphs		•	•						
	22 Short Vowels	•								
	23 Long Vowels/Vowel Combinations	•	•							
	24 Short Vowels/Vowel Combinations		•							
	25 Short, Long Vowels/Vowel Combinations			•						
	26 Diphthongs			•						
	27 Variant Vowels/Vowel Combinations			•						
STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS	28 Compound Words/Syllables/ Contractions		•	•						
	29 Base Words/Affixes		•	•						

Table 2

RANGE OF CATEGORY OBJECTIVES FOR READING, CAT C AND D

TEST	CATEGORY OBJECTIVE	Grade Level								
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
READING VOCABULARY	30 Category (Oral Definition)	•								
	31 Same Meaning (Oral Definition)	•								
	32 Same Meaning	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
	33 Opposite Meaning		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
	34 Multimeaning			•	•	•	•	•	•	•
READING COMPREHENSION	Literal 35 Sentence Meaning	•								
	36 Recall of Facts	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
	Interpretive 37 Inferred Meaning/Character Analysis	•								
	38 Inferred Meaning		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
	39 Character Analysis		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
	40 FIGURATIVE LANGUAGE			•	•	•	•	•	•	•
	Critical 41 Real/Unreal Elements			•						
	42 Author Attitude/Position				•	•	•	•	•	•
	43 Techniques of Persuasion						•	•	•	•

Next, take a look at the test items (on the test itself) which were written specifically for these objectives (CAT Manual, 1978) (See Table 3).

TABLE 3

California Achievement Tests, Form C—Arizona Skills Chart

Total Reading Skills Assessed: Level 11—Grade 1

Category Objective Number	Subtest and Category Objective	Maximum Possible	Total	Test Items	Arizona Skills Chart Number*
	Phonic Analysis				
17	Single Consonants	5		1, 2, 12, 13, 14	L/R 15
18	Consonant Clusters	5		6–10	L/R 15
19	Consonant Digraphs	5	25	3, 4, 5, 11, 15	L/R 15
22	Short Vowels	5		16, 18, 19, 22, 24	L/R 15
23	Long Vowels/Vowel Combinations	5		17, 20, 21, 23, 25	L/R 15
	Reading Vocabulary:				
30	Category (Oral Definition)	5		1–5	L/R 16
31	Same Meaning (Oral Definition)	5	15	6–10	L/R 16
32	Same Meaning	5		11–15	L/R 16
	Reading Comprehension:				
35	Sentence Meaning	8		1–8	L/R 19
36	Recall of Facts	7	20	9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17	L/R 19, 21
37	Inferred Meaning: Character Analysis	5		10, 16, 18, 19, 20	L/R 19, 22

Now, assuming that the skills identified on the Arizona Skills Chart (Arizona Department of Education, 1980), are somewhat indicative of your district or classroom objectives, look at these skills or objectives identified (concentrate on a single grade level first and then perhaps clusters such as primary).

COMMUNICATION SKILLS CHART
LISTENING/READING

First Grade

13. Listens to others.

14. Knows the difference between fact and make-believe.

15. Identifies sounds of letters in words using phonics skills.

16. Reads basic sight words for grade one.

17. Uses correct phrasing during oral reading.

18. Labels familiar objects.

19. Reads words and sentences from left to right.

20. Picks out details. For example: picture, object, rhyme, story.

22. Identifies main idea in a simple picture or story.

Second Grade

23. Follows three-step directions in order.

24. Recognizes difference between fact and opinion.

25. Retells story in proper order.

26. Blends sounds to form words.

27. Recognizes and sounds out words in reading using phonics skills.

28. Reads compound words. For example: everything, cowboy.

29. Reads basic sight words for grade two.

30. Answers questions to stories heard or read.

31. Reads independently for enjoyment.

32. Recognizes meaning of new words using other words in the sentence or story.

33. Alphabetizes words by first letter.

Third Grade

34. Predicts endings of stories.

35.. Draws conclusions from stories.

36. Identifies cause and effect in short stories (Why? How?).

37. Recognizes contractions. For example: don't, can't.

38. Identifies opposites. For example: happy, sad.

39. Identifies words that mean the same. For example: happy, glad.

40. Divides words into syllables. For example: Kit/ten.

41. Classifies words in groups. For example: fruits, tools.

42. Reads basic sight words for grade three.

43. Reads for a purpose: information and pleasure.

The next step would be to look at the relationship between these two items. What items on the CAT measure those skills or objectives specified on the Arizona Skills Chart? (Arizona Department of Education, 1981). Following this approach a classroom teacher might use the objectives or skills established for his/her grade level at the school or district level or even his/her own classroom level:

COMMUNICATION SKILLS CHART
LISTENING/READING

	SKILL	CAT OBJECTIVE	ITEM NUMBERS
	First Grade: Level 11		
13.	Listens to others.	NM	
14.	Knows the difference between fact and make-believe.	Lev. 13: Obj. 41	1-5
15.	Identifies sounds of letters in words using phonic skills.	17,18,19, 22,23	1,2,12,13,14, 6-10,3,4,5,11, 15,16,18,19,22, 24,17,20,21, 23,25
16.	Reads basic sight words for grade one.	30,31,32	(Reading Comp. Subtest) 1-15
17.	Uses correct phrasing during oral reading.	NM	
18.	Labels familiar objects.		
19.	Reads words and sentences from left to right.	35,36,37	(Reading Comp. Subtest) 1-20
20.	Follows punctuation marks while reading aloud.	NM	
21.	Picks out details. For example: picture, object, rhyme, story.	36	9,11-15,17
22.	Identifies main idea in a simple picture or story.	37	10,16,19,2-
	Second Grade: Level 12		
23.	Follows three-step directions in order		
24.	Recognizes difference between fact and opinion.	Lev. 14: Obj. 43	41-43,45
25.	Retells story in proper order.	NM	

	SKILL	CAT OBJECTIVE	ITEM NUMBERS
26.	Blends sounds to form words.	20,21,23, 24	(Phonic Analysis Subtest) 1-20
27.	Recognizes and sounds out words in reading using phonics skills.	20,21,23, 24	(Phonic Analysis Subtest) 1-25
28.	Reads compound words. For example: everything, cowboy.	28	1,2
29.	Reads basic sight words for grade two.	32,33	(Reading Vocab. Subtest) 1-15
30.	Answers questions to stories heard or read.	36,38,39	(Reading Comp. Subtest) 1-20
31.	Reads independently for enjoyment.	NM	
32.	Recognizes meaning of new words using other words in the sentence or story.	36,38,39	(Reading Comp. Subtest) 1-20
33.	Alphabetizes words by first letter.		
	Third Grade: Level 13		
34.	Predicts endings of stories		
35.	Draws conclusions from stories.	38	11,22,27
36.	Identifies cause and effect in short stories. (Why? How?)	38	15,19
37.	Recognizes contractions. For example: don't, can't.	28	5,6
38.	Identifies opposites. For example: happy, sad.	33	6-10
39.	Identifies words that mean the same. For example: happy, glad	32	1-5

	SKILL	CAT OBJECTIVE	ITEM NUMBERS
40.	Divides words into syllables. For example: kit/ten.	28	3,4
41.	Classifies words in groups. For example: fruits, tools.	Lev. 11: Obj. 30	1-5
42.	Reads basic sight words for grade three.	36,38,39, 40,41	(Reading Comp. Subtest) 1-27
43.	Reads for a purpose: Information and pleasure.	36,38,39, 40,41	(Reading Comp. Subtest) 1-27

(Arizona Department of Education, 1981)

Assuming that the Skills Chart is meaningful, we can now add an additional column to our chart; our own CUES objectives. It should now be possible to recognize the relationships between CAT, Arizona, and District CUES objectives or even individual classroom objectives.

Once these relationships are recognized, questions might be posed:

1. Why does the Arizona Skills Chart include distinguishing between fact and fiction at grade 1 and the CAT delays this until grade 3? Why isn't it one of our CUES objectives?

2. Is this an objective which we might want to include in our CUES objectives at this level? Do we want to delay it until grade 2 or grade 3?, Not at all?

3. Should we deal with sequencing or ordering of events? (Arizona Grade 2, #25: Retells story in proper order)

4. Should we include pencil and paper tests such as: After reading the paragraph, which came 1st, 2nd, 3rd?, on our <u>2nd</u> or <u>3rd</u> CUES test?

These items appear in one of these places (CAT, Az. Skills or CUES) because someone made the decision that they should be included. For example:

1. these are the things which are taught at grade 1.

2. curricular programs include these types of experiences at these levels.

3. these are developmental skills necessary for skills to be pursued later.

Whatever the reason, they are there. Why? Will considering these enable us to improve our instructional program?

It's called curriculum development. I didn't say using CAT tests or any tests was not going to require expenditure of time and effort. What I did say or imply was; information is there - "PUT UP or SHUT UP." Use it or stop complaining about it - someone else will use it. You may not like the way administrators or legislators use it. It would appear a lot better to say, "Here is the way we use the CAT results," rather than to go ahead and use the CAT results as you want to; we choose not to bother with them.

Hopefully I've given you some food for thought regarding how CAT tests might be used relative to classroom decision-making and curriculum development. Let's turn to administrators. What are some uses, cautions, or suggestions for them?

It should be obvious from my previous comments how principals or test coordinators could use CAT test results - assist classroom teachers as resource people or at least be supportive of and encourage their efforts. Additionally, principals need to be involved totally and bring a total school perspective to the process I've outlined.

Superintendents have additional opportunities and need to develop total district perspectives. Much of this might be done by way of the test coordinator. However, the overall responsibility for district decisions rests with the superintendent and ultimately the oard of rustees.

One of the responsibilities or opportunities that individual has is to formulate how test results will be reported. This is true for reporting to school district personnel, the board of trustees, or community groups. My word of caution is. "Be ready to do this or someone will do it for you!" A cooperative effort between the media and the school district would appear to be well advised. A cooperative effort would seem preferable to an adversary approach. If California is a reasonable model, it would appear

that if the educational community is not ready to report results or participate in the formulation of reporting characteristics, the media will do it for them. Unfortunately the media frequently reports in a somewhat dramatic manner. Take the initiative, beat them to the punch - "PUT UP or SHUT UP."

The public release of school-by-school test results is becoming a more frequent occurrence, especially in some of the larger urban school districts. New York, San Francisco, Detroit and others are examples of city districts where this procedure is followed. I'm not certain if this was media initiated or district initiated.

The Oakland Public Schools anticipated the need to develop an efficient and effective means of presenting test score data to faculties and school-community organizations and groups. The result was the development of a model presentation entitled, Tentative Guidelines for Interpretation of Test Scores, (Bodel & Larsen, 1970). These guidelines provide suggestions and information in three areas:

1. Outline and sequence of test score presentation including notes on important background concepts to be presented.

2. A discussion of test scores as they reflect school needs.

3. A number of selected questions frequently asked by parent and community groups.

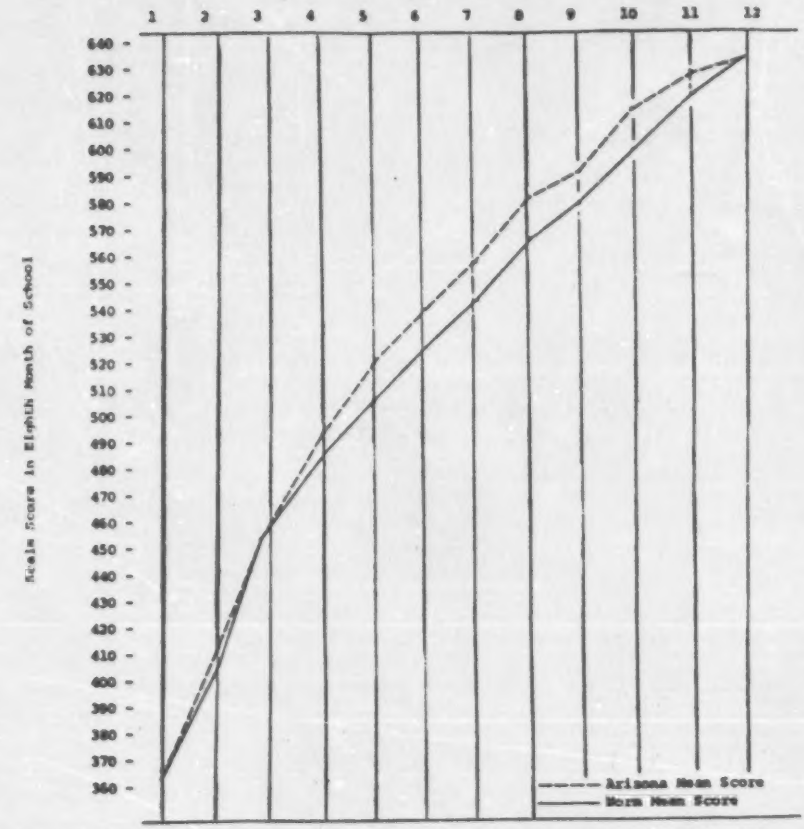
Such a procedure might be considered by districts in Arizona, and the place to use it first is with the media. In this way, a cooperative reporting effort could be initiated.

Be prepared for year to-year comparisons of test results. Don't depend upon the State Department of Education to handle your individual district reporting procedures. They will probably handle State vs. National Norm year-to-year comparisons much as they did for 1981 results, (Arizona Department of Education, June 1981). Work with them to develop some consistency between State and district reporting.

Figure 2

Mean Scale Scores for All Arizona Pupils and CAT-C Norm Group

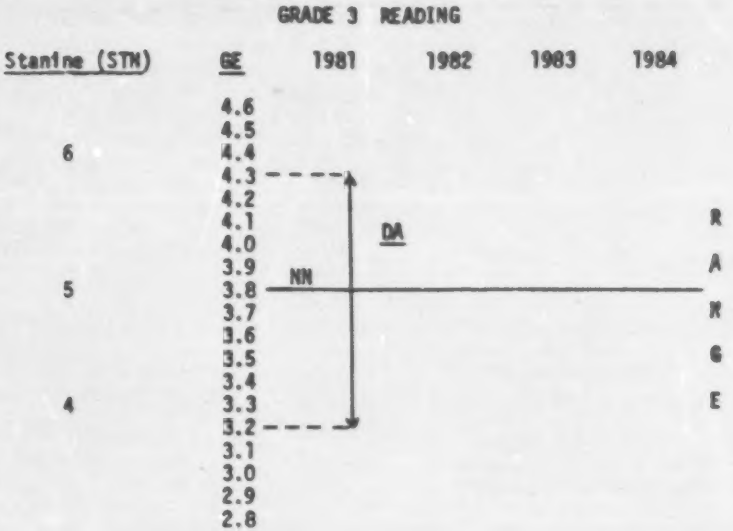
Pupils in the Eighth Month of School - TOTAL GRAMMAR



AZ Mean Score	362	411	451	491	520	540	556	579	591	612	626	630
Norm Mean Score	362	406	450	485	506	523	542	566	580	600	620	629

(Arizona Department of Education, June, 1981)

One possibility which might be considered is to develop a profile or graphic presentation incorporating the range of scores for schools within the district by year for each of the areas of reading, grammar, and mathematics. This would be done by grade level, (Mathis, 1981).



NN = NATIONAL NORM
DA = DISTRICT AVERAGE

*Analysis could be written here for each year.

A profile or graphic display of test results can greatly enhance presentation, interpretations, and analyses offered. Most importantly, it offers an opportunity to emphasize and shape methods of reporting.

Once again, let me say that I recognize that effort and time must be exerted to do these things - I realize this. If you don't want to expend the energy required, then don't - someone will do it for you - "PUT UP or SHUT UP."

SUMMARY

Let me draw to a conclusion. We are obviously deep in the throes of accountability. The public supporters of education are no longer satisfied with our testimonials: they realize we have vested interests. Standardized tests afford them what they consider to be credible, objective, external indicators of what our schools are doing. Standardized tests, I'm afraid, are going to be with us for sometime.

There are many, many criticisms of standardized tests. These criticisms are wide ranging. One could very easily succumb to the rhetoric one finds in discussions regarding standardized tests. If one wants to engage in catharsis, discussions of strengths and weaknesses of standardized tests certainly offers one a golden opportunity. A criticism of standardized tests does not necessarily imply a misuse of the test or test results. Avoid criticising tests; be positive, point out benefits, good experiences with them. Recognize their limitations, but use them to your advantage.

Measurements in general, and standardized test scores in particular, are being misused: when one fails to recognize error inherent in them; when used as the sole criterion in decision making; when inferences of cause-effect are derived; and, when one assumes that a test measures only single constructs. Information is needed to make decisions; test scores only provide one piece or part of the information needed.

Test results afford teachers opportunities for information which will enable them to make decisions about their classrooms. They offer teachers and administrators information to aid them in making curricular decisions. Finally, test results offer information to aid in reporting activities, needs, and anticipated changes to district personnel, boards of trustees, community groups, and the taxpaying public.

A colleague of mine once said, "We deal with human beings, children, in education; there are so many variables present and operating that it is almost impossible to conduct meaningful research or gather meaningful data; why bother?" I've thought about this a great deal. I've come to the conclusion that our efforts yield pieces of information, and information is needed in making decisions. Any information realized from our efforts, if we recognize inherent limitations and assumptions, will enable us to make better decisions. So it is with standardized tests, and CAT results in particular. We have them, and it appears as if we will have them in spite of criticisms, they can provide information, and they can be useful. Why not use them? I would say it's time we "PUT UP or SHUT UP!"

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